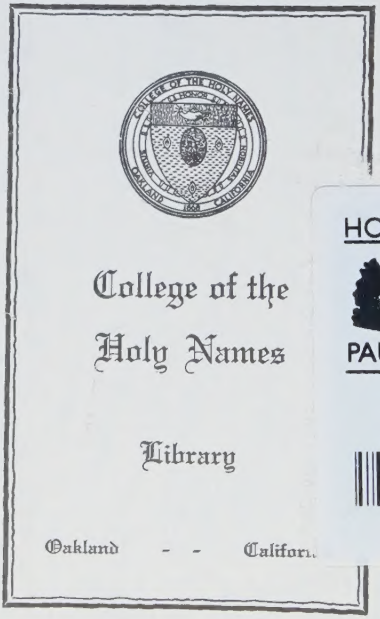


HOLY NAMES UNIVERSITY

PAUL J. CUSHING LIBRARY

library.hnu.edu

34681001148524

DO NOT REMOVE FROM COLLECTION
PRIOR
TO
2032
SHARED PRINT RETAINED ITEM

Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2025

https://archive.org/details/excitingexperien0000mars

COLLEGE OF THE HOLY NAMES,
OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA.

OFFICIAL AUTOGRAPH EDITION.

AUTHENTIC. COMPLETE. OFFICIAL.

EXCITING EXPERIENCES

IN OUR

WARS WITH SPAIN

AND THE

FILIPINOS

EDITED BY MARSHALL EVERETT,

THE GREATEST DESCRIPTIVE WRITER THE WORLD HAS EVER KNOWN.

INCLUDING THE

OFFICIAL HISTORY OF OUR WAR WITH SPAIN

By President WM. McKINLEY, as contained in his Official Message,

AND

All the Fascinating Stories of Our Late Wars Told by the Commanding Heroes Themselves.

The Life and Achievements of Admiral George Dewey.

The Life and Heroism of Brig.-Gen'l Funston and the Adventures of Aguinaldo.

THRILLING STORIES OF BRAVERY, EXCITING PERSONAL EXPERIENCES, WONDERFUL DESCRIPTIONS OF OUR VICTORIOUS BATTLES.

The History of Each of Our New Possessions and the History of American Expansion.

INCLUDING THE PEACE COMMISSION AND THE TREATY OF PEACE.

TO ALL OF WHICH IS ADDED

The Songs of the War and the Cartoons of the War Explained

AND A

COMPLETE GALLERY OF PHOTOGRAPHS, AUTOGRAPHS AND BIOGRAPHIES OF WAR HEROES, PHOTOGRAPHS OF BATTLE SCENES AND WAR INCIDENTS.

COPYRIGHTED, 1899, BY F. I. SCHEETZ.

BOOK PUBLISHERS UNION,
CHICAGO, ILL.

COLLEGE OF THE HOLY NAMES
OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA

E
715
N39

16016

INTRODUCTION.

What more fitting introduction could be given to any history of our wars with Spain and the Filipinos than the words of our war President, William McKinley, who sounded the true sentiments of this mighty nation, rejoicing in her new-found strength?—Editor.

"Our flag has been planted in two hemispheres, and there it remains, the symbol of liberty and law, of peace and progress. Who will withdraw from the people over whom it floats its protecting folds? Who will haul it down?

"The peace we have won is not a selfish truce of arms, but one whose conditions presage good to humanity. The domains secured under the treaty come to us not as the result of a crusade of conquest, but as the reward of temperate, faithful and fearless response to the call of conscience, which could not be disregarded by a liberty-loving and Christian people.

"We love peace. We are not a military nation, but whenever the time of peril comes the bulwark of this people rests in the patriotism of its citizens, and this nation will be safe for all time, because seventy-five millions of people love it and will give up their lives to sustain and uphold it.

"The war brought us together; its settlement will keep us together.

"Reunited! Glorious realization! It expresses the thought of my mind and the long-deferred consummation of my heart's desire as I stand in this presence. It interprets the hearty demonstration here witnessed and is the patriotic refrain of all sections and of all lovers of the republic.

"Reunited! One country again and one country forever! Proclaim it from the press and pulpit! Teach it in the schools! Write it across the skies! The world sees and feels it! It cheers every heart, north and south, and brightens the life of every American home. Let nothing ever strain it again. At peace with all the world and with each other, what can stand in the pathway of our progress and prosperity?"

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	Page
Introduction	5
Our Calendar of Glory	9
CHAPTER I.	
History of the War and Lessons of the War	16
CHAPTER II.	
Story of Cuba's Struggle for Freedom	40
CHAPTER III.	
The Story of the Maine Disaster	45
CHAPTER IV.	
Dewey's Naval Victory at Manila	51
CHAPTER V.	
The Story of the Sinking of the Merrimac	60
CHAPTER VI.	
Story of the Rough Riders	75
CHAPTER VII.	
Naval Victory off Santiago	82
CHAPTER VIII.	
Shafter's Santiago Campaign	92
CHAPTER IX.	
General Shafter's Own Story of Santiago	102
CHAPTER X.	
Statistics Applied to the Strain of Battle	112
CHAPTER XI.	
Graduated for the Grave and Glory	114
CHAPTER XII.	
Incidents of the Blockade	115
CHAPTER XIII.	
Sharpshooting by Experts	125
CHAPTER XIV.	
Planted Rough Riders' Guidon on San Juan's Rampart	130
CHAPTER XV.	
Brave Work of American Women	132
CHAPTER XVI.	
Battle of Manzanillo	140
CHAPTER XVII.	
Porto Rican Campaign	144
CHAPTER XVIII.	
Once Fighter, Now Governor	158
CHAPTER XIX.	
The Story of Private Joe Ertz	162
CHAPTER XX.	
Battle of Malate	168

CHAPTER XXI.
Merritt's Victory at Manila..... 172
CHAPTER XXII.
An Illustrative Story..... 183
CHAPTER XXIII.
Flag Floats Where no Blood Was Spilled..... 184
CHAPTER XXIV.
Perseverance of a Woman..... 187
CHAPTER XXV.
One of the Brave Boys..... 189
CHAPTER XXVI.
Three Historical First Events..... 191
CHAPTER XXVII.
The Treaty of Peace With Spain..... 196
CHAPTER XXVIII.
POETRY OF THE WAR.

The Reg'lar Army Man..... 211
The Warship Dixie..... 211
A Toast to Commodore Dewey..... 212
Yankee Dewey 212
Camp Calls 213
The Flag Goes By..... 213
Wheeler at Santiago 214
Birth of the Flag..... 214
Hol' Dem Philuppines..... 215
The Bravest Sailor of All..... 215
Our Soldier's Song 216
The Disintegration of a Mule..... 216
The Oregon 217
Eight Long Miles to Siboney..... 217
The Old Flag Forever 217
Victor Blue..... 218
M'ilrath of Malate..... 219
The Missing One 220
The New Alabama..... 221
A Toast to Our Ships..... 221
The Hero Down Below..... 221
Mister Sojer Man..... 222
To Admiral Schley 222
"Private Jones"..... 222
Hobson and His Chosen Seven..... 223
The Negro Soldier..... 223
Taps 223
The Coward..... 224
Reveille 224
"Do not Cheer"..... 224
In Memoriam..... 225
The Torpedo-Boat..... 226
A Stirrup Cup..... 226
Hozannah and Huzzah..... 227
The Marines at Caimanera..... 227
Jim 228
Rough Riders' Roundelay..... 228
Helen Gould 229
Mighty Fine 229
His Blood 230
Guam 231
A Song of the Fight..... 232
Army Diet 232
The Youngest Boy in Blue..... 232

CHAPTERS XXIX AND XXX.
PHOTOGRAPHS, AUTOGRAPHS AND BIOGRAPHIES.

President William McKinley..... 233
Admiral George Dewey..... 234
Admiral William T. Sampson..... 235
Rear-Admiral Winfield Scott Schley..... 236
Major-General W. R. Shafter..... 237
Major-General Wesley Merritt..... 238
Major-General Nelson A. Miles..... 239
Major-General Joseph Wheeler..... 240
Colonel Theodore Roosevelt..... 241
Lieutenant Richard Pearson Hobson..... 242

Ex-Secretary William R. Day, Peace Commissioner..... 243
Senator Cushman K. Davis, Peace Commissioner..... 244
Senator W. P. Frye, Peace Commissioner..... 245
Senator George Gray, Peace Commissioner..... 246
Whitelaw Reid, Peace Commissioner..... 247
Adjutant-General Henry C. Corbin..... 248
Major-General Fitzhugh Lee..... 249
General Russell A. Alger..... 250
John D. Long..... 251
Captain Charles E. Clark..... 252
Captain J. W. Philip..... 253
Captain Francis John Higginson..... 254
Captain Robley D. Evans..... 255
Captain Charles D. Sigsbee..... 256
Lieutenant-Colonel John Jacob Astor..... 257
Lieutenant Andrew S. Rowan..... 258
Helen Miller Gould..... 259
Clara Barton..... 260
General Stewart L. Woodford..... 261
Admiral Cervera..... 262
Captain-General Ramon Blanco..... 263
Rear-Admiral Montgomery Sicard..... 264

CHAPTER XXXI.

Story of the Oregon..... 265

CHAPTER XXXII.

The Nicaragua Canal..... 273

CHAPTER XXXIII.

Cuba, the "Pearl of the Antilles"..... 278

CHAPTER XXXIV.

Bull Fights in Spain..... 297

CHAPTER XXXV.

Beautiful Porto Rico..... 300

CHAPTER XXXVI.

The Hawaiian Islands..... 327

CHAPTER XXXVII.

The Philippine Islands..... 356

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

History of American Expansion..... 388

CHAPTER XXXIX.

Life of Admiral George Dewey..... 396

CHAPTER XL.

Fighting the Filipinos..... 403

CHAPTER XLI.

Capture of the Filipino Capital..... 411

CHAPTER XLII.

The Philippine Commission 416

CHAPTER XLIII.

Life of General Emilio Aguinaldo 434

CHAPTER XLIV.

Expansionists vs. Anti-Expansionists 442

CHAPTER XLV.

Lawton and MacArthur Expeditions 447

CHAPTER XLVI.

Liveliest Battles of the War 457

CHAPTER XLVII.

July Fighting—Rainy Season 481

CHAPTER XLVIII.

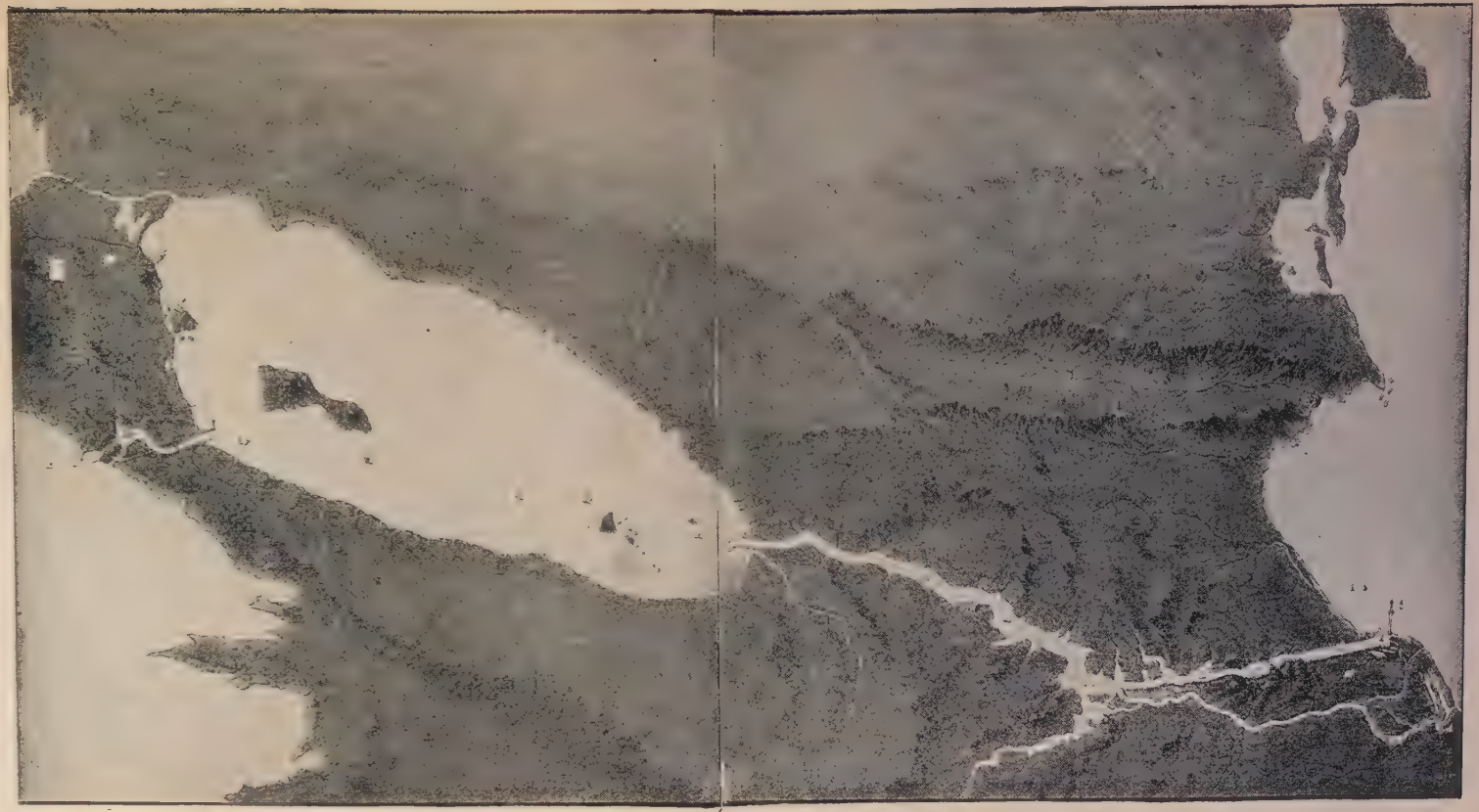
Many Battles and Much Diplomacy—Treaty with the Sulus..... 489

CHAPTER XLIX.

September in the Philippines..... 504

CHAPTER L.

Return of Admiral Dewey 509



PANORAMIC VIEW OF THE NICARAGUA CANAL.

THE CRUISER "BROOKLYN."

OUR CALENDAR OF GLORY.

TWELVE EVENTFUL MONTHS IN THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES—SUMMARY OF EVENTS IN THE WAR WITH SPAIN—DATES OF GREAT DOINGS BY AMERICAN SOLDIERS AND SAILORS—CHRONOLOGICAL HAPPENINGS OF HISTORY.

OLLOWING are the most important events of the Spanish-American war, told chronologically, from the sending of the Maine to Havana to the close of the year 1898:

JANUARY.

24—The battleship Maine ordered to Havana.

FEBRUARY.

9—Spanish Minister de Lome resigns because of the publication of his letter to Canalejas.

14—Louis Polo y Bernabe appointed Spanish Minister to the United States.

15—The battleship Maine blown up in Havana harbor; 266 lives lost.

MARCH.

4—Informal requests of Spain for recall of Consul General Lee and against shipment of Cuban relief supplies in warships refused by President McKinley.

8—The House passes the $50,000,000 national defense bill; passed by the Senate and becomes a law next day.

10—Minister Polo arrives in Washington.

24—The report of the Maine court of inquiry reaches Washington.

28—Several resolutions declaring war with Spain introduced in Congress.

31—Spain's reply, rejecting the demands of the United States, received by the President.

APRIL.

7—A collective peace note of the powers presented to President McKinley.

9—Consul General Lee and other United States representatives leave Cuba.

11—The President's Cuban intervention message submitted to Congress.

13—The House passes the Cuban intervention resolutions.

16—The Senate amends and passes the Cuban resolutions.

19—Congress passes finally the Cuban resolutions after an all-night session; signed by the President next day.

20—The American ultimatum wired to Madrid; the volunteer bill passed by the House; Minister Polo leaves Washington.

21—United States Minister Woodford given his passports. The Senate passes the volunteer bill.

22—The President proclaims the Cuban blockade; the Key West squadron sails for Havana; the gunboat Nashville fires the first shot of the war in capturing the Spanish merchantman Buena Ventura; the volunteer bill signed.

23—The President issues a call for 125,000 volunteers; the House passes the Hull army reorganization bill.

25—Declaration of war passed by both houses of Congress and signed by the President.

26—The Senate passes the army reorganization bill.

27—Matanzas fortifications bombarded.

29—The House passes the war revenue bill; Cabanas batteries bombarded.

MAY.

1—Commodore Dewey destroys the Spanish fleet in Manila bay; takes Cavite next day.

2—Army deficiency appropriation bill passed by both houses.

6—French Atlantic Liner Lafayette captured by blockading squadron off Havana, but released by orders from Washington.

7—Dewey's report of the battle of Manila Bay received by Navy Department; the President promotes him to be Acting Admiral.

9—Congress votes thanks to Dewey, who is promoted to the rank of Rear Admiral.

10—The immune volunteer bill finally passed.

11—The torpedo-boat Winslow disabled in a fight with shore batteries at Cardenas; the battle of Cienfuegos caused by American ships cutting cables.

12—San Juan, Porto Rico, bombarded by Admiral Sampson's squadron.

18—The battleship Alabama privately launched from Cramp's shipyard.

21—The cruiser Charleston sails for Manila and the monitor Monterey also ordered thither.

23—Admiral Cervera's Spanish squadron "bottled up" in Santiago harbor.

25—The President issues his second call for volunteers, asking for 75,000; the first installment sail from San Francisco for Manila.

31—First bombardment of Santiago forts takes place.

JUNE.

3—Lieutenant Hobson and seven other heroes sink the Merrimac in Santiago harbor.

4—The Senate passes the war revenue bill; Lieutenant Carranza's stolen letter published.

5—The army of invasion embarks at Tampa for Santiago; the Spanish cruiser Reina Mercedes hit during the bombardment of Santiago forts.

6—Carranza and Du Bosc, heads of the Spanish spy system, arrested in Montreal.

7—Caimanero bombarded.

10—United States marines land in force at Crest Hill, Guantanamo bay.

11—Marines at Crest Hill repulse a Spanish attempt to dislodge them.

13—The war revenue bill signed by the President; Vesuvius dynamite guns tested on Santiago fortifications.

14—Americans and Cubans at Guantanamo bay surprise and capture the Spanish guerrilla camp.

20—Transports with General Shafter's army on board arrive off Santiago.

22—Americans capture Guam, one of the Ladrone islands; the St. Paul disables the Spanish torpedo-boat Terror at San Juan.

24—The battle of Guasimas won by United States cavalry and Rough Riders.

27—President McKinley recommends to Congress rewards for Lieutenant Hobson, Lieutenant Newcomb, and Naval Cadet Powell.

28—The blockade extended on the southern coast of Cuba and to San Juan, Porto Rico.

29—General Merritt sails for Manila.

30—The first American expedition to the Philippine islands arrives at Cavite.

JULY.

1—The two days' battle before Santiago begins; Spaniards driven from outer works into the city.

3—Cervera's fleet destroyed while attempting to escape from Santiago harbor.

4—The second Philippine expedition rediscovers Wake island.

6—Spanish prisoners of war mutiny on the Harvard; six of them killed. President McKinley issues a war thanksgiving proclamation.

7—Merrimac heroes released by exchange; German interference against insurgents in Subig bay causes Dewey to capture Grande island.

13—Du Bosc leaves Canada for Spain at the urgent request of the Canadian government.

14—General Toral consents to surrender Santiago and Eastern Cuba; surrender effected on the 17th.

17—American fleet destroys ten Spanish vessels in Manzanillo harbor.

18—General Miles sails from Siboney with the vanguard of the Porto Rico invasion.

20—The contract for deporting Spanish prisoners of war to Spain awarded the Spanish Trans-Atlantic Company.

21—The American fleet captures Nipe harbor and destroys the Spanish cruiser Jorge Juan.

23—The United States transport Wanderer repulsed in an attempt to land men and munitions for insurgents at Bahia Honda.

25—The first Porto Rico expedition, under General Miles, lands at Guanica; General Merritt lands at Cavite.

26—Spain sues for peace through the French Ambassador at Washington.

28—Ponce surrenders.

30—McKinley's terms of peace forwarded to Madrid by French Ambassador Cambon.

AUGUST.

4—Shafter's army at Santiago ordered to Montauk Point, L. I.

5—Americans take Guayama, Porto Rico, after a sharp fight.

6—The Porto Rican section of the Cuban Revolutionary party in New York dissolved and superseded by the Patriotic League of Porto Ricans.

6—Americans victorious at Coama, Porto Rico; Spaniards repulsed in their attempt to retake the lighthouse at Cape San Juan.

10—The peace protocol drawn up.

13—The protocol signed by Secretary Day and M. Cambon, the French Ambassador, acting for Spain; suspension of hostilities ordered and blockades lifted; Manzanillo bombarded; a Spanish battery silenced at Assomanta, Porto Rico; Manila stormed and captured by the Americans; natives massacred by Spaniards at Ciales, Porto Rico.

16—Evacuation commissions for Cuba and Porto Rico named.

25—General Shafter leaves Santiago, remainder of his army embarks next day; United States peace commissioners selected.

31—Orders received at Annapolis looking to release of Spanish naval prisoners.

SEPTEMBER.

1—General Shafter arrives at Montauk Point.

3—President McKinley visits Camp Wikoff.

5—The Spanish Cortes assembles.

7—General Miles lands in New York from Porto Rico.

9—The President orders an investigation of the War Department.

10—The Spanish Senate approves the peace protocol.

12—Admiral Cervera and other Spanish naval prisoners sail for Spain.

13—The Spanish Chamber approves the peace protocol.

14—The Queen Regent signs the protocol, Cortes prorogued.

17—United States peace commissioners sail for Paris.

20—Spanish troops begin to evacuate Porto Rico.

OCTOBER.

1—American and Spanish peace commissioners hold their first joint session.

10—Americans take full possession of Manzanillo.

13—Chaplain McIntyre of the Oregon convicted by court-martial of offenses against naval discipline; work of the Porto Rican evacuation commissioners completed.

18—The United States assumes sovereignty over the entire island of Porto Rico.

24—Spanish evacuation of Porto Rico complete.

30—The former Spanish cruiser Maria Teresa sails for Hampton Roads.

31—The United States peace commissioners demand cession of the entire Philippine group.

NOVEMBER.

4—The cruiser Maria Teresa abandoned as a derelict during a storm on her voyage northward.

14—The mutiny of Orden Publico, the Spanish force in Havana, results in the dissolution of that body.

17—The evacuation of Camp Meade completed.

21—The American ultimatum presented to the Spanish peace commissioners.

25—First United States troops land in Havana province.

28—Spain agrees to the American ultimatum for the cession of the Philippines.

30—Blanco leaves Havana for Spain.

DECEMBER.

3—The American flag hoisted over Sancti Spiritus and Trinidad, Cuba.

10—The peace treaty signed.

11—Three Cubans killed and eleven wounded in a riot with Spaniards in Havana.

14—General Lee arrives in Havana; the Philippine Island Development Association of American Volunteers formed by Astor battery men at Manila.

24—The American peace commissioners submit the treaty to the President.

27—The American evacuation commissioners issue a proclamation to the inhabitants of Cuba.

31—Last day of Spanish sovereignty in the western hemisphere.

HE "MUST PAY THE PIPER."

Uncle Sam (to Spain)—"You've had your fun, sonny, and now you must pay the price."—Los Angeles Times.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORY OF THE WAR

By PRESIDENT WM. McKINLEY, as contained in his Official Message.

FOR a righteous cause and under a common flag military service has strengthened the national spirit and served to cement more closely than ever the fraternal bonds between every section of the country.

In my annual message very full consideration was given to the question of the duty of the Government of the United States toward Spain and the Cuban insurrection as being by far the most important problem with which we were then called upon to deal. The considerations then advanced, and the exposition of the views then expressed, disclosed my sense of the extreme gravity of the situation.

Setting aside, as logically unfounded or practically inadmissible, the recognition of the Cuban insurgents as belligerents, the recognition of the independence of Cuba, neutral intervention to end the war by imposing a rational compromise between the contestants, intervention in favor of one or the other party, and forcible annexation of the islands, I concluded it was honestly due to our friendly relations with Spain that she should be given a reasonable chance to realize her expectations of reform, to which she had become irrevocably committed. Within a few weeks previously she had announced comprehensive plans, which it was confidently asserted would be efficacious to remedy the evils so deeply affecting our own country, so injurious to the true interests of the mother country as well as to those of Cuba, and so repugnant to the universal sentiment of humanity.

The ensuing month brought little sign of real progress toward the pacification of Cuba. The autonomous administration set up in the capital and some of the principal cities appeared not to gain the favor of the inhabitants nor to be able to extend their influence to the large

extent of territory held by the insurgents, while the military arm, obviously unable to cope with the still active rebellion, continued many of the most objectionable and offensive policies of the government that had preceded it.

No tangible relief was afforded the vast numbers of unhappy reconcentrados, despite the reiterated professions made in that regard and the amount appropriated by Spain to that end. The proffered expedient of zones of cultivation proved illusory. Indeed, no less practical nor more delusive promises of succor could well have been tendered to the exhausted and destitute people, stripped of all that made life and home dear and herded in a strange region among unsympathetic strangers hardly less necessitous than themselves.

By the end of December the mortality among them had frightfully increased. Conservative estimates from Spanish sources placed the deaths among these distressed people at over 40 per cent. from the time General Weyler's decree of reconcentration was enforced. With the acquiescence of the Spanish authorities a scheme was adopted for relief by charitable contributions raised in this country and distributed, under the direction of the Consul General and the several Consuls, by noble and earnest individual effort through the organized agencies of the American Red Cross. Thousands of lives were thus saved, but many thousands more were inaccessible to such forms of aid.

The war continued on the old footing, without comprehensive plan, developing only the same spasmodic encounters, barren of strategic result, that had marked the course of the earlier Ten Years' rebellion as well as the present insurrection from its start. No alternative save physical exhaustion of either combatant, and therewithal the practical ruin of the island, lay in sight, but how far distant no one could venture to conjecture.

DESTRUCTION OF THE MAINE.

At this juncture, on the 15th of February last, occurred the destruction of the battleship Maine, while rightfully lying in the Harbor of Havana on a mission of international courtesy and good will—a catastrophe the suspicious nature and horror of which stirred the nation's heart profoundly.

It is a striking evidence of the poise and sturdy good sense distinguishing our national character that this shocking blow, falling upon a generous people, already deeply touched by preceding events in

Cuba, did not move them to an instant, desperate resolve to tolerate no longer the existence of a condition of danger and disorder at our doors that made possible such a deed by whomsoever wrought. Yet the instinct of justice prevailed and the nation anxiously awaited the result of the searching investigation at once set on foot

The finding of the naval board of inquiry established that the origin of the explosion was external by a submarine mine, and only halted through lack of positive testimony to fix the responsibility of its authorship.

All these things carried conviction to the most thoughtful, even before the finding of the naval court, that a crisis in our relations with Spain and toward Cuba was at hand. So strong was this belief that it needed but a brief executive suggestion to the Congress to receive immediate answer to the duty of making instant provision for the possible and perhaps speedy probable emergency of war, and the remarkable, almost unique, spectacle was presented of a unanimous vote of both houses on the 9th of March, appropriating $50,000,000 for the national defense and for each and every purpose connected therewith, to be expended at the direction of the President.

That this act of provision came none too soon was disclosed when the application of the fund was undertaken. Our forts were practically undefended. Our navy needed large provision for increased ammunition and supplies and even numbers to cope with any sudden attack from the navy of Spain, which comprised modern vessels of the highest type of continental perfection. Our army also required enlargement of men and munitions.

The details of the hurried preparation for the dreaded contingency are told in the reports of the Secretaries of War and of the Navy, and need not be repeated here. It is sufficient to say that the outbreak of war, when it did come, found our nation not unprepared to meet the conflict.

Nor was the apprehension of coming strife confined to our own country. It was felt by the Continental powers, which, on April 6, through their Ambassadors and Envoys, addressed to the Executive an expression of hope that humanity and moderation might mark the course of this government and people, and that further negotiations would lead to an agreement which, while securing the maintenance of peace, would affirm all necessary guarantees for the re-establishment of order in Cuba.

In responding to that representation I also shared the hope that the Envoys had expressed that peace might be preserved in a manner to terminate the chronic condition of disturbance in Cuba so injurious and menacing to our interests and tranquillity, as well as shocking to our sentiments of humanity; and, while appreciating the humanitarian and disinterested character of the communication they had made on behalf of the powers, I stated the confidence of this government, for its part, that equal appreciation would be shown for its own earnest and unselfish endeavors to fulfill a duty to humanity by ending a situation the indefinite prolongation of which had become insufferable.

VAIN EFFORTS TO AVERT WAR.

Still animated by the hope of a peaceful solution and obeying the dictates of duty, no effort was relaxed to bring about a speedy ending of the Cuban struggle. Negotiations to this object continued actively with the Government of Spain, looking to the immediate conclusion of a six months' armistice in Cuba with a view to effecting the recognition of her people's rights to independence. Besides this, the instant revocation of the order of reconcentration was asked, so that the sufferers, returning to their homes and aided by united American and Spanish effort, might be put in a way to support themselves and, by orderly resumption of the well-nigh destroyed productive energies of the island, contribute to the restoration of its tranquillity and well being.

Negotiations continued for some little time at Madrid, resulting in offers by the Spanish Government which could not but be regarded as inadequate. It was proposed to confide the preparation of peace to the insular parliament, yet to be convened under the autonomous decrees of November, 1897, but without impairment in any wise to the constitutional powers of the Madrid government, which, to that end, would grant an armistice, if solicited by the insurgents, for such time as the General-in-Chief might see fit to fix.

How and with what scope of discretionary powers the insular parliament was expected to set about the "preparation" of peace did not appear. If it were to be by negotiation with the insurgents, the issue seemed to rest on the one side with a body chosen by a fraction of the electors in the districts under Spanish control and on the other with the insurgent population holding the interior country, unrepresented in the so-called parliament, and defiant at the suggestion of suing for peace.

Grieved and disappointed at this barren outcome of my sincere endeavors to reach a practicable solution, I felt it my duty to remit the whole question to the Congress. In the message of April 1, 1898, I announced that with this last overture in the direction of immediate peace in Cuba, and its disappointing reception by Spain, the effort of the Executive was brought to an end.

I again reviewed the alternative course of action which I had proposed, concluding that the only one consonant with international policy and compatible with our firm-set historical traditions was intervention as a neutral to stop the war and check the hopeless sacrifice of life, even though that resort involved "hostile constraint upon both the parties to the contest, as well to enforce a truce as to guide the eventual settlement."

The grounds justifying that step were: The interests of humanity, the duty to protect life and property of our citizens in Cuba, the right to check injury to our commerce and people through the devastation of the island, and, most important, the need of removing at once and forever the constant menace and the burdens entailed upon our government by the uncertainties and perils of the situation caused by the unendurable disturbance in Cuba. I said:

"The long trial has proved that the object for which Spain has waged the war cannot be attained. The fire of insurrection may flame or may smoulder with varying seasons, but it has not been, and it is plain that it cannot be, extinguished by present methods. The only hope of relief and repose from a condition which can no longer be endured is the enforced pacification of Cuba. In the name of humanity, in the name of civilization, in behalf of endangered American interests, which give us the right and the duty to speak, the existing war in Cuba must stop."

In view of all this the Congress was asked to authorize and empower the President to take measures to secure a full and final termination of hostilities between Spain and the people of Cuba and to secure in the island the establishment of a stable government, capable of maintaining order and observing its international obligations, insuring peace and tranquillity, and the security of its citizens as well as our own, and for the accomplishment of those ends to use the military and naval forces of the United States as might be necessary, with added authority to continue generous relief to the starving people of Cuba.

DECISIVE ACTION BY CONGRESS.

The response of the Congress, after nine days of earnest deliberation, during which the almost unanimous sentiment of that body was developed on every point save as to the expediency of coupling the proposed action with a formal recognition of the republic of Cuba as the true and lawful government of that island—a proposition which failed of adoption—the Congress, after conference, on the 19th of April, by a vote of 42 to 35 in the Senate and 311 to 6 in the House of Representatives, passed the memorable joint resolution, declaring:

"1. That the people of the Island of Cuba are, and of right ought to be, free and independent.

"2. That it is the duty of the United States to demand, and the Government of the United States does hereby demand, that the Government of Spain at once relinquish its authority and government in the Island of Cuba, and withdraw its land and naval forces from Cuba and Cuban waters.

"3. That the President of the United States be and he hereby is directed and empowered to use the entire land and naval forces of the United States, and to call into the actual service of the United States the militia of the several States to such extent as may be necessary, to carry these resolutions into effect.

"4. That the United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction or control over said island, except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people."

This resolution was approved by the Executive on the next day, April 20. A copy was at once communicated to the Spanish Minister at this capital, who forthwith announced that his continuance in Washington had thereby become impossible, and asked for his passports, which were given him. He thereupon withdrew from Washington, leaving the protection of Spanish interests in the United States to the French Ambassador and the Austro-Hungarian Minister.

Simultaneously with its communication to the Spanish Minister, General Woodford, the American Minister at Madrid, was telegraphed confirmation of the text of the joint resolution, and directed to communicate it to the Government of Spain, with the formal demand that

it at once relinquish its authority and government in the Island of Cuba, and withdraw its forces therefrom, coupling this demand with announcements of the intentions of this government as to the future of the island, in conformity with the fourth clause of the resolution, and giving Spain until noon of April 23d to reply.

The demand, although, as above shown, officially made known to the Spanish Envoy here, was not delivered at Madrid. After the instruction reached General Woodford on the morning of April 21st, but before he could present it, the Spanish Minister of State notified him that upon the President's approval of the joint resolution the Madrid Government, regarding the act as "equivalent to an evident declaration of war," had ordered its Minister in Washington to withdraw, thereby breaking off diplomatic relations between the two countries, and ceasing all official communication between their respective representatives. General Woodford thereupon demanded his passports and quitted Madrid the same day.

FORMAL DECLARATION OF WAR.

Spain having thus denied the demand of the United States and initiated that complete form of rupture of relations which attends a state of war, the executive powers authorized by the resolution were at once used by me to meet the enlarged contingency of actual war between Spain and the United States.

On April 22d I proclaimed a blockade of the northern coast of Cuba, including ports on said coast between Cardenas and Bahia Honda, and the port of Cienfuegos on the south coast of Cuba, and on the 23d I called for volunteers to execute the purpose of the resolution.

By my message of April 25th the Congress was informed of the situation, and I recommended formal declaration of the existence of a state of war between the United States and Spain. The Congress accordingly voted on the same day the act approved April 25, 1898, declaring the existence of such war, from and including the 21st day of April, and re-enacted the provisions of the resolution of April 20th, directing the President to use all the armed forces of the nation to carry that act into effect.

Due notification of the existence of war as aforesaid was given April 25th by telegraph to all the governments with which the United States maintain relations, in order that their neutrality might be assured during the war.

The various governments responded with proclamations of neutrality, each after its own methods. It is not among the least gratifying incidents of the struggle that the obligations of neutrality were impartially discharged by all, often under delicate and difficult circumstances.

In further fulfillment of international duty, I issued, April 26th, a proclamation announcing the treatment proposed to be accorded to vessels and their cargoes as to blockades, contraband, the exercise of the right of subjects and the immunity of neutral flags and neutral goods under the enemy's flag. A similar proclamation was made by the Spanish Government. In the conduct of hostilities the rules of the declaration of Paris, including abstention from resort to privateering, have accordingly been observed by both belligerents, although neither was a party to that declaration.

RECRUITING OF ARMY AND NAVY

Our country thus, after an interval of half a century of peace with all nations, found itself engaged in deadly conflict with a foreign enemy. Every nerve was strained to meet the emergency.

The response to the initial call for 125,000 volunteers was instant and complete, as was also the result of the second call of May 25th for 75,000 additional volunteers. The ranks of the regular army were increased to the limits provided by the act of April 26th.

The enlisted force of the navy on the 15th of August, when it reached its maximum, numbered 24,123 men and apprentices. One hundred and three vessels were added to the navy by purchase, one was presented to the government, one leased and the four vessels of the International Navigation Company—the St. Paul, St. Louis, New York and Paris—were chartered. In addition to these the revenue cutters and lighthouse tenders were turned over to the Navy Department and became temporarily a part of the auxiliary navy.

The maximum effective fighting force of the navy during the war, separated into classes, was as follows:

REGULAR—Four battleships of the first class, one battleship of the second class, two armored cruisers, six coast defense monitors, one armored ram, twelve protected cruisers, three unprotected cruisers, eighteen gunboats, one dynamite cruiser, eleven torpedo boats, fourteen old vessels of the old navy, including monitors.

AUXILIARY NAVY—Sixteen auxiliary cruisers, twenty-eight

converted yachts, twenty-seven converted tugs, nineteen converted colliers, fifteen revenue cutters, four lighthouse tenders and nineteen miscellaneous vessels.

Much alarm was felt along our entire Atlantic seaboard lest some attack might be made by the enemy. Every precaution was taken to prevent possible injury to our great cities lying along the coast. Temporary garrisons were provided, drawn from the State militia. Infantry and light batteries were drawn from the volunteer force. About 12,000 troops were thus employed. The coast signal service was established for observing the approach of an enemy's ships to the coast of the United States, and the life-saving and lighthouse services co-operated, which enabled the Navy Department to have all portions of the Atlantic coast, from Maine to Texas, under observation.

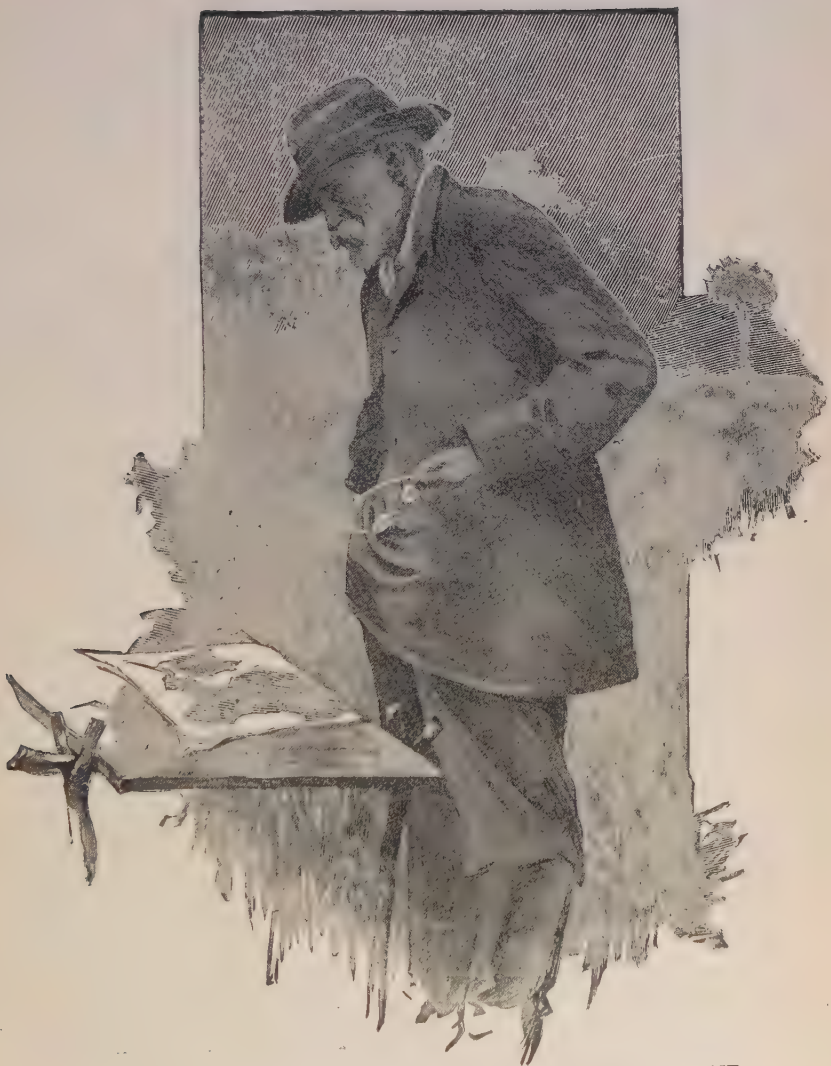
The auxiliary navy was created under the authority of Congress and was officered and manned by the Naval Militia of the several States. This organization patrolled the coast and performed the duty of a second arm of defense.

Under the direction of the Chief of Engineers submarine mines were placed at the most exposed points. Before the outbreak of the war permanent mining casements and cable galleries had been constructed at all important harbors. Most of the torpedo material was not to be found in the market and had to be specially manufactured. Under date of April 19th district officers were directed to take all preliminary measures, short of the actual attaching of the loaded mines to the cables, and on April 22d telegraphic orders were issued to place the loaded mines in position.

The aggregate number of mines placed was 1,535 at the principal harbors from Maine to California. Preparations were also made for the planting of mines at certain other harbors, but owing to the early destruction of the Spanish fleet these mines were not placed.

The signal corps was promptly organized and performed service of most difficult and important character. Its operations during the war covered the electrical connection of all coast fortifications and the establishment of telephonic and telegraphic facilities for the camps at Manila, Santiago and in Porto Rico.

There were constructed 300 miles of line at ten great camps, thus facilitating military movements from those points in a manner heretofore unknown in military administration. Field telegraph lines were established and maintained under the enemy's fire at Manila, and later



THE OLD MAN—GENERAL MAXIMO GOMEZ IN CAMP.

CHARGE OF THE ROUGH RIDERS AT SAN JUAN HILL.

the Manila-Hongkong cable was reopened. In Porto Rico cable communications were opened over a discontinued route, and on land the headquarters of the commanding officer were kept in telegraphic or telephonic communication with the division commanders of four different lines of operation.

There was placed in Cuban waters a completely outfitted cable ship, with war cables and cable gear suitable both for the destruction of communications belonging to the enemy and the establishment of our own. Two ocean cables were destroyed under the enemy's batteries at Santiago. The day previous to the landing of General Shafter's corps at Caimanera, within twenty miles of the landing place, cable communications were established and cable stations opened, giving direct communication with the Government at Washington. This service was invaluable to the Executive in directing the operations of the army and navy.

With a total force of over 1,300 the loss was by disease and field, officers and men included, only five.

PATRIOTISM IN BOND BIDS.

The national defense under the $50,000,000 fund was expended in large part by the army and navy, and the objects for which it was used are fully shown in the reports of the several Secretaries. It was a most timely appropriation, enabling the Government to strengthen its defense and making preparations greatly needed in case of war.

This fund being inadequate to the requirements of equipment and for the conduct of the war, the patriotism of the Congress provided the means in the war revenue act of June 13th, by authorizing a 3 per cent. popular loan, not to exceed $400,000,000, and by levying additional imposts and taxes. Of the authorized loan, $200,000,000 were offered and promptly taken, the subscriptions so far exceeding the call as to cover it many times over, while, preference being given to the smaller bids, no single allotment exceeded $5,000.

This was a most encouraging and significant result, showing the vast resources of the nation and the determination of the people to uphold their country's honor.

DEWEY'S HISTORIC VICTORY.

The first encounter of the war in point of date took place April 27th, when a detachment of the blockading squadron made a recon-

naissance in force at Matanzas, shelled the harbor forts and demolished several new works in construction.

The next engagement was destined to mark a memorable epoch in maritime warfare. The Pacific fleet, under Commodore Dewey, had lain for some weeks at Hongkong. Upon the colonial proclamation of neutrality being issued and the customary twenty-four hours' notice being given, it repaired to Mirs Bay, near Hongkong, whence it proceeded to the Philippine Islands under telegraphed orders to capture or destroy the formidable Spanish fleet then assembled at Manila.

At daybreak on the 1st of May the American force entered Manila Bay, and after a few hours' engagement effected the total destruction of the Spanish fleet, consisting of ten warships and a transport, besides capturing the naval station and forts at Cavite, thus annihilating the Spanish naval power in the Pacific Ocean and completely controlling the Bay of Manila, with the ability to take the city at will. Not a life was lost on our ships, the wounded only numbering seven, while not a vessel was materially injured.

For this gallant achievement the Congress, upon my recommendation, fitly bestowed upon the actors preferment and substantial reward.

The effect of this remarkable victory upon the spirit of our people and upon the fortunes of the war was instant. A prestige of invincibility thereby attached to our arms, which continued throughout the struggle. Re-enforcements were hurried to Manila under the command of Major-General Merritt and firmly established within sight of the capital, which lay helpless before our guns.

On the 7th day of May the Government was advised officially of the victory at Manila, and at once inquired of the commander of our fleet what troops would be required. The information was received on the 15th day of May, and the first army expedition sailed May 25th and arrived off Manila June 30. Other expeditions soon followed, the total force consisting of 641 officers and 15,058 men.

Only reluctance to cause needless loss of life and property prevented the early storming and capture of the city, and therewith the absolute military occupancy of the whole group. The insurgents meanwhile had resumed the active hostilities suspended by the uncompleted truce of December, 1897. Their forces invested Manila from the northern and eastern side, but were constrained by Admiral Dewey and General Merritt from attempting an assault.

It was fitting that whatever was to be done in the way of decisive

operations in that quarter should be accomplished by the strong arm of the United States alone. Obeying the stern precept of war, which enjoins the overcoming of the adversary and the extinction of his power wherever assailable as the speedy and sure means to win a peace, divided victory was not permissible, for no partition of the rights and responsibilities attending the enforcement of a just and advantageous peace could be thought of.

CAMPAIGN IN CUBA REVIEWED.

Following the comprehensive scheme of general attack, powerful forces were assembled at various points on our coast to invade Cuba and Porto Rico. Meanwhile naval demonstrations were made at several exposed points. On May 11th the cruiser Wilmington and torpedo boat Winslow were unsuccessful in an attempt to silence the batteries at Cardenas, against Matanzas, Worth Bagley and four seamen falling.

These grievous fatalities were, strangely enough, among the very few which occurred during our naval operations in this extraordinary conflict.

Meanwhile the Spanish naval preparations had been pushed with great vigor. A powerful squadron under Admiral Cervera, which had assembled at the Cape Verde Islands before the outbreak of hostilities, had crossed the ocean, and by its erratic movements in the Caribbean Sea delayed our military operations while baffling the pursuit of our fleets. For a time fears were felt lest the Oregon and Marietta, then nearing home after their long voyage from San Francisco of over 15,000 miles, might be surprised by Admiral Cervera's fleet, but their fortunate arrival dispelled these apprehensions and lent much needed re-enforcement.

Not until Admiral Cervera took refuge in the Harbor of Santiago de Cuba about May 9th was it practicable to plan a systematic military attack upon the Antillean possessions of Spain. Several demonstrations occurred on the coasts of Cuba and Porto Rico in preparation for the larger event. On May 13th the North Atlantic squadron shelled San Juan de Porto Rico. On May 30th Commodore Schley's squadron bombarded the forts guarding the mouth of Santiago Harbor. Neither attack had any material result. It was evident that well-ordered land operations were indispensable to achieve a decisive advantage.

The next act in the war thrilled not alone the hearts of our countrymen but the world by its exceptional heroism.

On the night of June 3d Lieutenant Hobson, aided by seven devoted volunteers, blocked the narrow outlet from Santiago Harbor by sinking the collier Merrimac in the channel, under a fierce fire from the shore batteries, escaping with their lives as by a miracle, but falling into the hands of the Spaniards.

It is a most gratifying incident of the war that the bravery of this little band of heroes was cordially appreciated by the Spaniards, who sent a flag of truce to notify Admiral Sampson of their safety and to compliment them upon their daring act. They were subsequently exchanged July 7th.

By June 7th the cutting of the last Cuban cable isolated the island. Thereafter the invasion was vigorously prosecuted. On June 10th, under a heavy protecting fire, a landing of 600 marines from the Oregon, Marblehead and Yankee was effected in Guantanamo Bay, where it had been determined to establish a naval station. This important and essential port was taken from the enemy after severe fighting by the marines, who were the first organized force of the United States to land in Cuba. The position so won was held despite desperate attempts to dislodge our forces.

By June 16th additional forces were landed and strongly intrenched. On June 22d the advance of the invading army under Major-General Shafter landed at Baiquiri, about fifteen miles east of Santiago. This was accomplished under great difficulties, but with marvelous dispatch. On June 23d the movement against Santiago was begun.

On the 24th the first serious engagement took place, in which the First and Tenth Cavalry and the First United States Volunteer Cavalry, General Young's brigade of General Wheeler's division, participated, losing heavily. By nightfall, however, ground within five miles of Santiago was won.

The advantage was steadily increased. On July 1st a severe battle took place, our forces gaining the outworks of Santiago. On the 2d El Caney and San Juan were taken after a desperate charge, and the investment of the city was completed. The navy co-operated by shelling the town and the coast forts.

DESTRUCTION OF THE ARMADA.

On the day following this brilliant achievement of our land forces, July 3d, occurred the decisive naval combat of the war. The Spanish fleet, attempting to leave the harbor, was met by the American squad-

ron under command of Commodore Sampson. In less than three hours all the Spanish ships were destroyed, the two torpedo boats being sunk, and the Maria Teresa, Almirante Oquendo, Vizcaya and Cristobal Colon driven ashore. The Spanish Admiral and over 1,300 men were taken prisoners, while the enemy's loss of life was deplorably large, some 600 perishing.

On our side but one man was killed, on the Brooklyn, and one man seriously wounded. Although our ships were repeatedly struck, not one was seriously injured.

Where all so conspicuously distinguished themselves, from the commanders to the gunners and the unnamed heroes in the boiler-rooms, each and all contributing toward the achievement of this astounding victory, for which neither ancient nor modern history affords a parallel in the completeness of the event and the marvelous disproportion of casualties, it would be invidious to single out any for especial honor.

Deserved promotion has rewarded the more conspicuous actors—the nation's profoundest gratitude is due to all of those brave men who by their skill and devotion in a few short hours crushed the sea power of Spain and wrought a triumph whose decisiveness and far-reaching consequences can scarcely be measured. Nor can we be unmindful of the achievements of our builders, mechanics and artisans for their skill in the construction of our warships.

With the catastrophe of Santiago Spain's effort upon the ocean virtually ceased. A spasmodic effort toward the end of June to send her Mediterranean fleet under Admiral Camara to relieve Manila was abandoned, the expedition being recalled after it had passed through the Suez Canal.

The capitulation of Santiago followed. The city was closely besieged by land, while the entrance of our ships into the harbor cut off all relief on that side. After a truce to allow of the removal of non-combatants protracted negotiations continued from July 3d to July 15th, when, under menace of immediate assault, the preliminaries of surrender were agreed upon. On the 17th General Shafter occupied the city.

The capitulation embraced the entire eastern end of Cuba. The number of Spanish soldiers surrendered was 22,000, all of whom were subsequently conveyed to Spain at the charge of the United States.

The story of this successful campaign is told in the report of the

Secretary of War, which will be laid before you. The individual valor of officers and soldiers was never more strikingly shown than in the several engagements leading to the surrender of Santiago, while the prompt movements and successive victories won instant and universal applause.

To those who gained this complete triumph, which established the ascendancy of the United States upon land as the fight off Santiago had fixed our supremacy on the seas, the earnest and lasting gratitude of the nation is unsparingly due.

Nor should we alone remember the gallantry of the living; the dead claim our tears, and our losses by battle and disease must cloud any exultation at the result and teach us to weigh the awful cost of war, however rightful the cause or signal the victory.

OCCUPATION OF PORTO RICO.

With the fall of Santiago, the occupation of Porto Rico became the next strategic necessity. General Miles had previously been assigned to organize an expedition for that purpose. Fortunately he was already at Santiago, where he had arrived on the 11th of July, with re-enforcements for General Shafter's army.

With these troops, consisting of 3,415 infantry and artillery, two companies of engineers, and one company of the signal corps, General Miles left Guantanamo on July 21st, having nine transports convoyed by the fleet under Captain Higginson, with the Massachusetts (flagship), Dixie, Gloucester, Columbia and Yale, the two latter carrying troops. The expedition landed at Guanica July 25th, which port was entered with little opposition. Here the fleet was joined by the Annapolis and the Wasp, while the Puritan and Amphitrite went to San Juan and joined the New Orleans, which was engaged in blockading that port.

The Major-General commanding was subsequently re-enforced by General Schwann's brigade of the Third Army Corps, by General Wilson, with a part of his division, and also by General Brooke, with a part of his corps, numbering in all 16,973 officers and men. On July 27 he entered Ponce, one of the most important ports in the island, from which he thereafter directed operations for the capture of the island.

With the exception of encounters with the enemy at Guayama, Hormigueres, Coamo and Yauco, and an attack on a force landed at Cape San Juan, there was no serious resistance. The campaign was prosecuted with great vigor, and by the 12th of August much of the

island was in our possession, and the acquisition of the remainder was only a matter of a short time.

At most of the points in the island our troops were enthusiastically welcomed. Protestations of loyalty to the flag and gratitude for delivery from Spanish rule met our commanders at every stage.

As a potent influence toward peace, the outcome of the Porto Rican expedition was of great consequence, and generous commendation is due to those who participated in it.

WAR'S LAST SCENE AT MANILA.

The last scene of the war was enacted at Manila, its starting place. On August 15th, after a brief assault upon the works by the land forces, in which the squadron assisted, the capital surrendered unconditionally. The casualties were comparatively few.

By this the conquest of the Philippine Islands, virtually accomplished when the Spanish capacity for resistance was destroyed by Admiral Dewey's victory of the 1st of May, was formally sealed.

To General Merritt, his officers and men, for their uncomplaining and devoted services, for their gallantry in action, the nation is sincerely grateful. Their long voyage was made with singular success, and the soldierly conduct of the men, most of whom were without previous experience in the military service, deserves unmeasured praise.

LOSSES OF ARMY AND NAVY.

The total casualties in killed and wounded during the war were as follows:

ARMY.

Officers killed	23
Enlisted men killed	257
Total	280
Officers wounded	113
Enlisted men wounded	1,464
Total	1,577

NAVY.

Killed	17
Wounded	67
Died as result of wounds	1
Invalided from service	6
Total	91

It will be observed that while our navy was engaged in two great battles and in numerous perilous undertakings in the blockades and bombardment, and more than 50,000 of our troops were transported to distant lands and engaged in assault and siege and battle and many skirmishes in unfamiliar territory, we lost in both arms of the service a total of 1,948 killed and wounded; and in the entire campaign by land and sea we did not lose a gun or a flag or a transport or a ship, and with the exception of the crew of the Merrimac not a soldier or sailor was taken prisoner.

On August 7th, forty-six days from the date of the landing of General Shafter's army in Cuba and twenty-one days from the surrender of Santiago, the United States troops commenced embarkation for home, and our entire force was returned to the United States as early as August 24th. They were absent from the United States only two months.

It is fitting that I should bear testimony to the patriotism and devotion of that large portion of our army which, although eager to be ordered to the post of greatest exposure, fortunately was not required outside of the United States. They did their whole duty, and, like their comrades at the front, have earned the gratitude of the nation.

In like manner, the officers and men of the army and of the navy who remained in their departments and stations of the navy, performing most important duties connected with the war, and whose requests for assignment in the field and at sea I was compelled to refuse because their services were indispensable here, are entitled to the highest commendation. It is my regret that there seems to be no provision for their suitable recognition.

In this connection it is a pleasure for me to mention in terms of cordial appreciation the timely and useful work of the American National Red Cross, both in relief measures preparatory to the campaign, in sanitary assistance at several of the camps and assemblage, and later, under the able and experienced leadership of the president of the society, Miss Clara Barton, on the fields of battle and in the hospitals at the front in Cuba. Working in conjunction with the governmental authorities and under their sanction and approval and with the enthusiastic co-operation of many patriotic women and societies in the various States, the Red Cross has fully maintained its already high reputation for intense earnestness and ability to exercise the noble purposes of its international organization, thus justifying the confidence

and support which it has received at the hands of the American people.

To the members and officers of this society and all who aided them in their philanthropic work, the sincere and lasting gratitude of the soldiers and the public is due and is freely accorded.

In tracing these events we are constantly reminded of our obligations to the Divine Master for His watchful care over us and His safe guidance, for which the nation makes reverent acknowledgment and offers humble prayer for the continuance of His favor.

SIGNING OF THE PROTOCOL.

The annihilation of Admiral Cervera's fleet, followed by the capitulation of Santiago, having brought to the Spanish Government a realizing sense of the hopelessness of continuing a struggle now becoming wholly unequal, it made overtures of peace through the French Ambassador, who, with the assent of his government, had acted as the friendly representative of Spanish interests during the war.

On the 26th of July M. Cambon presented a communication signed by the Duke of Almodovar, the Spanish Minister of State, inviting the United States to state the terms upon which it would be willing to make peace.

On July 30th, by a communication addressed to the Duke of Almodovar and handed to M. Cambon, the terms of this government were announced, substantially as in the protocol afterward signed.

On August 10th the Spanish reply, dated August 7th, was handed by M. Cambon to the Secretary of State. It accepted unconditionally the terms imposed as to Cuba, Porto Rico and an island of the Ladrones group, but appeared to seek to introduce inadmissible reservations in regard to our demand as to the Philippines.

Conceiving that discussion on this point could neither be practicable or profitable, I directed that in order to avoid misunderstanding the matter should be forthwith closed by proposing the embodiment in a formal protocol of the terms on which the negotiations for peace were to be undertaken.

The vague and inexplicit suggestions of the Spanish note could not be accepted, the only reply being to present as a virtual ultimatum a draft of a protocol embodying the precise terms tendered to Spain in our note of July 30th, with added stipulations of detail as to the appointment of commissioners to arrange for the evacuation of the Spanish Antilles.

On August 12th M. Cambon announced his receipt of full power to sign the protocol so submitted. Accordingly, on the afternoon of August 12th, M. Cambon, as the plenipotentiary of Spain, and the Secretary of State, as the plenipotentiary of the United States, signed a protocol, providing:

"Article 1. Spain will relinquish all claim of sovereignty over and title to Cuba.

"Article 2. Spain will cede to the United States the Island of Porto Rico and other islands now under Spanish sovereignty in the West Indies, and also an island in the Ladrones to be selected by the United States.

"Article 3. The United States will occupy and hold the city, bay and harbor of Manila pending the conclusion of a treaty of peace which shall determine the control, disposition and government of the Philippines."

The fourth article provided for the appointment of joint commissions on the part of the United States and Spain, to meet in Havana and San Juan, respectively, for the purpose of arranging and carrying out the details of the stipulated evacuation of Cuba, Porto Rico and other Spanish islands in the West Indies.

The fifth article provided for the appointment of not more than five commissioners on each side to meet at Paris not later than October 1st and to proceed to the negotiation and conclusion of a treaty of peace, subject to ratification according to the respective constitutional forms of the two countries.

The sixth and last article provided that upon the signature of the protocol, hostilities between the two countries should be suspended, and that notice to that effect should be given as soon as possible by each government to the commanders of its military and naval forces.

CESSATION OF STRIFE.

Immediately upon the conclusion of the protocol I issued a proclamation on August 12th, suspending hostilities on the part of the United States. The necessary orders to that end were at once given by telegraph. The blockade of the ports of Cuba and San Juan de Porto Rico was in like manner raised.

On August 18th the muster out of 100,000 volunteers, or as near that number as was found to be practicable, was ordered. On December 1st, 101,165 officers and men had been mustered out and discharged

from the service; 9,002 more will be mustered out by the 10th of the month. Also a corresponding number of Generals and general staff officers have been honorably discharged from the service.

The military committees to superintend the evacuation of Cuba, Porto Rico and the adjacent islands were forthwith appointed—for Cuba, Major-General James F. Wade, Rear Admiral William T. Sampson and Major-General Matthew C. Butler; for Porto Rico, Major-General John C. Brooke, Rear Admiral Winfield S. Schley and Brigadier-General W. W. Gordon, who soon afterward met the Spanish commissioners at Havana and San Juan respectively.

WORK OF EVACUATION.

The Porto Rican joint commissions speedily accomplished its task, and by October 18th the evacuation of the island was completed. The United States flag was raised over the island at noon on that day.

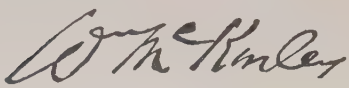
As soon as we are in possession of Cuba and have pacified the island it will be necessary to give aid and direction to its people to form a government for themselves. This should be undertaken at the earliest moment consistent with safety and assured success.

It is important that our relations with these people shall be of the most friendly character and our commercial relations close and reciprocal. It should be our duty to assist in every proper way to build up the waste places of the island, encourage the industry of the people and assist them to form a government which shall be free and independent, thus realizing the best aspirations of the Cuban people.

Spanish rule must be replaced by a just, benevolent and humane government, created by the people of Cuba, capable of performing all international obligations, and which shall encourage thrift, industry and prosperity, and promote peace and good will among all of the inhabitants, whatever may have been their relations in the past. Neither revenge nor passion should have a place in the new government.

President of the United States.

LESSONS OF THE WAR

By 

President of the United States.

Under hostile fire on a foreign soil, fighting in a common cause, the memory of old disagreements has faded into history. From camp and campaign there comes the magic healing which has closed ancient wounds and effaced their scars. For this result every American patriot will forever rejoice. It is no small indemnity for the cost of war.

This government has proved itself invincible in the recent war and out of it has come a nation which will remain indivisible forever more. No worthier contributions have been made in patriotism and in men than by the people of Southern States. When at last the opportunity came they were eager to meet it and with promptness responded to the call of the country. Intrusted with the able leadership of men dear to them, who had marched with their fathers under another flag, now fighting under the old flag again, they have gloriously helped to defend its spotless folds and added new luster to its shining stars.

That flag has been planted in two hemispheres, and there it remains, the symbol of liberty and law, of peace and progress. Who will withdraw from the people over whom it floats its protecting folds? Who will haul it down?

The victory is not that of a ruler, a President or a Congress, but of the people. The army whose valor we admire and the navy whose achievements we applaud were not assembled by draft or conscription, but from voluntary enlistment. The heroes came from civil as well as military life. Trained and untrained soldiers wrought our triumphs.

The peace we have won is not a selfish truce of arms, but one whose conditions presage good to humanity. The domains secured under the treaty yet to be acted upon by the Senate came to us not as the result of a crusade of conquest, but as the reward of temperate, faithful and fearless response to the call of conscience, which could not be disregarded by a liberty loving and Christian people.

We have so borne ourselves in the conflict and in our intercourse with the powers of the world as to escape complaint of complication and give universal confidence of our high purpose and unselfish sacrifices for struggling peoples.

"New occasions teach new duties." To this nation and to every nation there come formative periods in its life and history. New conditions can be met only by new methods. Meeting these conditions hopefully and facing them bravely and wisely is to be the mightiest test of American virtue and capacity. Without abandoning past limitations, traditions and principles, but by meeting present opportunities and obligations, we shall show ourselves worthy of the great trust which civilization has imposed upon us.

At Bunker Hill liberty was at stake, at Gettysburg the Union was the issue, before Manila and Santiago our armies fought not for gain or revenge, but for human rights. They contended for the freedom of the oppressed, for whose welfare the United States has never failed to lend a helping hand to establish and uphold, and I believe never will. The glories of the war cannot be dimmed, but the result will be incomplete and unworthy of us unless supplemented by civil victories, harder possibly to win, in their way no less indispensable.

We will have our difficulties and our embarrassments. They follow all victories and accompany all great responsibilities. They are inseparable from every great movement or reform. But American capacity has triumphed over all in the past. Doubts have in the end vanished. Apparent dangers have been averted or avoided, and our own history shows that progress has come so naturally and steadily on the heels of new and grave responsibilities that as we look back upon the acquisitions of territory by our fathers we are filled with wonder that any doubt could have existed or any apprehension could have been felt of the wisdom of their action or their capacity to grapple with the then untried and mighty problems.

The republic is to-day larger, stronger and better prepared than ever before for wise and profitable developments in new directions and along new lines. Even if the minds of some of our own people are still disturbed by perplexing and anxious doubts, in which all of us have shared and still share, the genius of American civilization will, I believe, be found both original and creative and capable of subserving all the great interests which shall be confided to our keeping.

Forever in the right, following the best impulses and clinging to high purposes, using properly and within right limits our power and opportunities, honorable reward must inevitably follow. The outcome cannot be in doubt.

We could have avoided all the difficulties that lie across the path-

way of the nation if we had coldly ignored the piteous appeals of the starving and oppressed inhabitants of Cuba. If we had blinded ourselves to the conditions so near our shores and turned a deaf ear to our suffering neighbors the issue of territorial expansion in the Antilles and the East Indies would not have been raised.

But could we have justified such a course? Is there any one who would now declare another to have been the better course? With less humanity and less courage on our part, the Spanish flag, instead of the Stars and Stripes, would still be floating at Cavite, at Ponce and at Santiago, and a "chance in the race of life" would be wanting to millions of human beings who to-day call this nation noble, and who, I trust, will live to call it blessed.

Thus far we have done our supreme duty. Shall we now, when the victory won in war is written in the treaty of peace and the civilized world applauds and waits in expectation, turn timidly away from the duties imposed upon the country by its own great deeds?

And when the mists fade and we see with clearer vision, may we not go forth rejoicing in a strength which has been employed solely for humanity and always been tempered with justice and mercy, confident of our ability to meet the exigencies which await us, because confident that our course is one of duty and our cause that of right?

Never has American valor been more brilliantly illustrated in the battle line on shore and on the battleships at sea than by the soldiers and sailors of the United States.

Everybody is talking of Hobson, and justly so, but I want to thank Mother Hobson. Everybody is talking about General Wheeler, one of the bravest of the brave, but I want to speak of that sweet little daughter that followed him to Santiago and ministered to the sick at Montauk.

I have spoken in many places and at many times of the heroism of the American army and the American navy, but in our recent conflict the whole people were patriots. Two hundred thousand men were called for and a million rushed to get a place in the ranks. And millions more stood ready if need be.

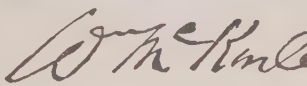
I like the feeling of the American people that we ought not to have a large standing army, but it has been demonstrated that we need the standing army large enough to do all the work required while we are at peace and only rely on the great body of the people in an emergency to help us fight our battles.

We love peace. We are not a military nation, but whenever the time of peril comes the bulwark of this people rests in the patriotism of its citizens, and this nation will be safe for all time, because 75,000,000 of people love it and will give up their lives to sustain and uphold it.

The war brought us together; its settlement will keep us together.

Reunited! Glorious realization! It expresses the thought of my mind and the long-deferred consummation of my heart's desire as I stand in this presence. It interprets the hearty demonstration here witnessed and is the patriotic refrain of all sections and of all lovers of the republic.

Reunited! One country again and one country forever! Proclaim it from the press and pulpit! Teach it in the schools! Write it across the skies! The world sees and feels it! It cheers every heart, north and south, and brightens the life of every American home. Let nothing ever strain it again. At peace with all the world and with each other, what can stand in the pathway of our progress and prosperity?



President of the United States.

LICKING THE WAR REVENUE STAMPS.

Uncle Sam—"It took me three months to lick Spain, but there's no telling how long it will take me to lick these stamps."—Minneapolis Journal.

CHAPTER II.

STORY OF CUBA'S STRUGGLE FOR FREEDOM—A CENTURY OF REVOLUTION WHICH LED TO THE WAR BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND SPAIN.

EFORE entering upon the historic incidents and events of the Spanish-American war it is important that the reader should know something of the long struggle of Cuba for independence and the causes of the many revolutions in the "Pearl of the Antilles" from the time it came under Spanish rule.

The Cubans are not a warlike people. On the contrary, they are peaceable, amiable and pleasure-loving.

"No people are so easy to govern as the Cubans," said General Vargas. "Treat them courteously and kindly, let them go unmolested about their business, do not interfere with their amusements and you can do with them almost anything you like."

Yet these patient, peace-loving people have either been in revolt or have been fomenting a revolution since 1823. In fact, they knew neither peace nor security from the time they came under Spanish rule until by the powerful intervention of the United States the shackles were broken from their limbs and the galling yoke of Spain lifted from their weary necks.

The history of Cuba for the last century has been written in the blood of her brave sons. It has been a century of dishonor for Spain, but she has paid dearly in blood and treasure and territory for the oppressions she has visited upon her American colonies. Once she was the ruler of more than half the North American continent, all of Central and South America and the islands of the southern coasts. To-day she is one of the smallest of European powers, without owning or exercising authority over a foot of land in the Western Hemisphere.

During the first three centuries of Spanish sovereignty in the New World, Cuba was neglected most of the time and wholly ignored a part of the time by the mother country. Near the end of the eighteenth

A TRUCE BEFORE SANTIAGO.

century she began to take a lively interest in her island colony and a system of injustice and oppression was practiced which kindled the fires of revolution and has kept them burning intermittently ever since.

There was a Cuban revolution in 1823, another in 1826, another in 1830, another in 1848, and others in 1850, 1851 and 1855. Then came a brief lull in open hostilities, while the Cuban patriots prepared for the "Ten Years' War," beginning in 1868 and ending in 1878. Following this came an uprising in 1879 and another in 1885.

As there had been ten years of war, there were ten years of comparative peace until February 24, 1895, when the revolution began which culminated in the Spanish-American war, the outcome of which gave to Cuba Freedom and Independence, for which she had fought so long.

What were the causes that led the peace-loving Cubans to wage an almost continuous war against Spain for nearly a century?

The answer is to be found in the history of every Central and South American republic which has thrown off the yoke of Spain. Instead of seeking to develop the resources of her American colonies and to promote the welfare of the colonists, Spain has used them merely to swell the income of the home treasury and to enrich the fortunes of the dishonest officials she sent to rule over them. Every industry has been extortionately taxed.

One of the first products of Cuban soil to acquire importance at the beginning of the last century was tobacco. The government at once monopolized its cultivation, sale and manufacture to such an extent that the planters several times rose in armed rebellion, and many times destroyed their fields rather than submit to being robbed of all their profits and a part of their labor. A better idea of the extent of the extortion and imposition practiced is shown by the fact that a Cuban could not hold a reception at his house until he had first obtained a license and paid for it.

In the levying of taxes and the distribution of revenue the Cubans have had no voice nor vote. That was all done by the mother country. Every year they were compelled to pay from $26,000,000 to $30,000,000 in taxation. Of this enormous sum only $700,000 was expended in Cuba for internal improvements, and not one cent for education. The balance of it was disbursed as follows: To pay interest on Spanish debt, $12,000,000; army and navy of Spain, $7,000,000; salaries of Spanish officials in and out of the island, $8,000,000.

In reality, the Cubans paid nearer $50,000,000 than $30,000,000 in taxes, for it is estimated that about 40 per cent. of the revenue was stolen by dishonest Spanish officials in the islands. These frauds have been exposed on numerous occasions, particularly in 1887 and 1891. In the latter year 350 employes, high and low, were convicted of fraud, but none of them ever was punished. Even ministers at the Court of Madrid had a hand in these frauds.

The tariff laws of the island were such that Cuba was compelled to buy of Spain about $28,000,000 of merchandise per annum which she could have obtained elsewhere for about $20,000,000 under just laws of trade.

Cuba was compelled to submit to this taxation without representation in the Spanish Cortes, although she never ceased her efforts to secure the right to send delegates to that body. In 1810 the Spanish Junta, organized for the purpose of defending the country against the invasion of Napoleon's army, authorized the election of two delegates from Cuba. The Spanish constitution of 1812 also authorized representation from the colonies, but in 1814, when Ferdinand VII. ascended the throne, the constitution was revoked. In 1820 he was compelled to accept it, but in 1823 it was again overthrown. In 1833, after Ferdinand's death, a new constitution was adopted, but was dead almost as soon as born. In 1836 the old constitution of 1812 was revived, under which Cuba elected and sent four delegates to the Spanish Cortes, but they were refused admittance, and the Cortes adopted a resolution declaring that "in future the American and Asiatic provinces should be governed by special laws, and that their deputies should not be admitted into the Cortes."

When the "Ten Years' War" was brewing, Spain foresaw it, and in 1865 authorized the election of a Cuban commission to act with commissioners appointed by the Crown to recommend reforms in the government of the island. The commission met in Madrid, was closely questioned by the government, a report was made, handed in, and the commissioners sent home. No action was ever taken on the report, but the next year taxes in Cuba were increased so much that many property owners asked to have their property confiscated, as they could not pay the tax.

Nothing more was done until the administration of Martinos Campos as Captain-General, when an agreement was made that Cuba should have a limited self-government and representation in the Cortes. The

Cortes then devised a plan whereby the Cubans, with a population of 1,400,000, would have two representatives in the local council of administration, and the Spaniards, numbering 160,000, would have twenty-eight representatives, the Captain-General to be president of the council, with full veto power and also power to suspend any number of representatives not exceeding a majority.

The so-called "local self-government" was therefore but a transparent fraud, and Spain's object was equally plain. She was then trying to float a loan of $300,000,000 to redeem a bond issue of $200,000,000, the interest of which she had pledged Cuban revenues to pay, leaving $100,000,000 of the new loan for her own uses. The plan was to have this loan approved by the Cuban Council, and thus fasten the debt forever upon the island, but the Cubans rejected the scheme, and hence emerged from the late revolution free of any debt contracted by Spain.

From the beginning of her rule as a colonial power in the New World, Spain has practiced the grossest deception and hypocrisy toward her colonies. This is best shown by the fact that whenever accused of injustice toward them she has always pointed to the celebrated code of "Laws of the Indies," the first thirty-nine ordinances of which were signed by Charles I. in 1542. But she has never called attention to the fact that these laws never were enforced and never were intended for enforcement. They were practically revoked by a royal decree issued at Madrid on March 28, 1825, which reads as follows:

"His Majesty the King, our lord, desiring to obviate the inconveniences which might result in extraordinary cases from a division of command, and from the interference of powers and prerogatives of the respective officers; for the important end of preserving in that precious island his legitimate sovereign authority and public tranquillity through proper means, has resolved, in accordance with the opinion of his council of Ministers, to give to your Excellency the fullest authority, bestowing upon you all the powers which by the royal ordinances are granted to the governors of besieged cities. In consequence of this, his Majesty gives to your Excellency the most complete and unbounded power, not only to send away from the island any person in office, whatever be their rank, class or condition, whose conduct, public or private, may alarm you, replacing them with persons faithful to his Majesty and deserving of all the confidence of your Excellency; but also to suspend the execution of any order whatsoever, or any general

provision made concerning any branch of the administration as your Excellency may think most suitable to the royal service."

That decree is in effect to-day. The only law there has been in Cuba since it was issued has been the will of the Captain-General, and these officials, with the exception of Martinos Campos, have been tyrannical and bloodthirsty.

Neither life nor property was safe from Spanish malignity and rapacity. In times of peace Cubans were arrested without process of law and cast into prison or deported to penal colonies. Those suspected of revolutionary sentiments were shot. During the "Ten Years' War" over 13,000 Cuban estates were confiscated, 1,000 of which belonged to ladies who were supposed to sympathize with the revolutionists.

Thousands of prisoners were captured in that war and many in the last revolution, who were never heard of afterward. There was no liberty for individuals nor for the press. Extortion, robbery and bloodshed were the methods of the rulers. There was no redress, and no appeal to the "mother country" was of any avail.

Is it strange that even such peaceable and kindly disposed people as the Cubans should have appealed to the arbitrament of gun and sword? Nor is it strange that their struggle should have enlisted the sympathy and assistance of the Great Republic whose watchword is Liberty.

UNCLE SAM SWINGS IN HIS HAMMOCK.

The conditions in Cuba have been slightly changed in the last few days.—Minneapolis Journal.

CHAPTER III.

THE STORY OF THE MAINE DISASTER—DESTRUCTION OF THE BATTLESHIP IN HAVANA HARBOR MAKES WAR INEVITABLE.

PRESIDENT McKINLEY has often been quoted as saying that had it not been for the destruction of the American second-class battleship Maine in Havana Harbor on the night of February 15, 1898, that war with Spain would have been averted.

That act of treachery aroused the fighting spirit of the American people and every subsequent move of the Government was greeted by the popular cry of "Remember the Maine." It was shouted by the crews on Dewey's ships at the battle of Manila, by the men who sunk Cervera's fleet off Santiago and was also adapted as the battle-cry of the land forces when they went into action.

Technically speaking, the blowing up of the Maine was an ante bellum incident never officially charged against the Spanish Government, but, unofficially speaking, it was the direct cause of the war.

The facts connected with this dastardly act of Spanish treachery are as follows: The action of the United States Government in protesting against acts of injustice, cruelty and brutality that Spain was visiting upon the Cubans precipitated anti-American riots in Havana, and the United States second-class battleship Maine, Captain Charles D. Sigsbee commanding, was ordered to make a friendly visit to the port of Havana, and, if necessary, afford protection to the lives and property of American residents.

The Maine arrived outside the harbor Tuesday, January 25, 1898, and was taken in by a Spanish pilot and moored over what was known on the official chart as Buoy No. 4. Captain Sigsbee observed all the forms of naval etiquette in making calls upon the Spanish officials, and they in turn were punctilious in showing him every outward courtesy, but it was apparent, nevertheless, in the manner of the Spanish officials and populace that they resented the visit of the American man-of-war.

This resentment finally found its most violent expression in the destruction of the beautiful battleship, presumably by a submarine mine or torpedo. The explosion which wrecked the Maine occurred at 9:40 P. M. on the night of February 15th. The night was dark and the air moist and sultry. The Maine was lying in a position where all of her batteries could have been opened on the shore fortifications, and Spanish distrust and fear may have had as much to do with springing the fatal mine as Spanish hatred.

Twenty-one of the twenty-six officers and the entire crew of 328 men were aboard. The latter had not been allowed to go ashore, as Captain Sigsbee feared their presence in the streets might precipitate local conflicts with Spanish soldiers and sailors.

At ten minutes after 9 o'clock the bugler sounded "taps" and the doomed crew turned in to quarters, many of them to their last sleep. Thirty minutes later, when the explosion occurred, Captain Sigsbee was sitting at a table in his cabin enclosing a letter in an envelope; other officers were on deck, from which they could see the steamer City of Washington, just astern, and the Spanish cruiser Alfonso XII., and the Spanish dispatch-boat Legazpi, close by on the starboard.

According to the witnesses who testified before the court of inquiry there were two explosions. The first seemed to lift the bow of the great ship from the water and the second to rend it into a mass of wreckage. For a moment all was intense darkness, and the roar of water rushing into the sinking ship was mingled with the groans and screams of the mangled and drowning crew.

As Captain Sigsbee was groping his way on deck he ran into a sailor, who proved to be Private William Anthony.

"Sir," said Anthony, "I have the honor to report that the ship has been blown up and is sinking."

This was a splendid illustration of the coolness and self-possession which prevailed among officers and men who survived.

Boat crews from the Ward Line steamer City of Washington and from the Spanish cruiser Alfonso XII. hurried to the scene and performed gallant and heroic service in rescuing the maimed and injured struggling in the black waters of the harbor. Two officers and 264 men met death either by being crushed or drowned. Many of the bodies were rescued by divers and were interred in the cemetery in Havana. The wounded were cared for aboard the City of Washington, on the Alfonso XII. and in Havana Hospital.

A court of inquiry found that the Maine was blown up by a submarine explosion, but failed to charge responsibility upon anyone.

CAPTAIN SIGSBEE'S COOLNESS.

Captain Sigsbee's conduct in such a catastrophe has been highly commended. His coolness and self-possession are attested by the cablegram he sent to the Navy Department, as soon as he had learned the nature of the damage done his beautiful ship:

Secnav (Secretary of the Navy), Washington, D. C.

Maine blown up in Havana Harbor at 9:40 to-night and destroyed. Many wounded and doubtless more killed or drowned. Wounded and others on board Spanish man-of-war and Ward Line steamers. Send lighthouse tenders from Key West for crew and the few pieces of equipment above water. None has clothing other than that upon him. PUBLIC OPINION SHOULD BE SUSPENDED UNTIL FURTHER REPORT. All officers believed to be saved. Jenkins and Merritt not yet accounted for.

Many Spanish officers, including representative of General Blanco, now with me to express sympathy. SIGSBEE.

CAPTAIN SIGSBEE'S ACCOUNT OF THE EXPLOSION.

The following description of the blowing up of the Maine was given by Captain Sigsbee to the naval court of inquiry:

"I was just closing a letter to my family when I felt the crash of the explosion. It was a bursting, rending and crashing sound, or roar of immense volume, largely metallic in its character. It was succeeded by a metallic sound—probably of falling debris—a trembling and lurching motion of the vessel, then an impression of subsidence, attended by an eclipse of the electric lights and intense darkness within the cabin. I knew immediately that the Maine had been blown up and that she was sinking. I hurried to the starboard cabin ports, thinking it might be necessary for me to make my exit in that way. Upon looking out I decided that I could go by the passage leading to the superstructure. I therefore took the latter route, feeling my way along and steadying myself by the bulkheads. The superstructure was filled with smoke, and it was dark. Nearing the outer entrance I met Private Anthony, the orderly at the cabin door at the time. He ran into me

and, as I remember, apologized in some fashion, and reported to me that the ship had been blown up and was sinking.

"I reached the upper deck, asked a few questions of those standing about me—Lieutenant-Commander Wainwright, I think, for one—then I asked the orderly for the time. He said that the exact time of the explosion was 9:40 P. M. I proceeded to the poop deck, stood on the guard rail and held on to the main rigging in order to see over the poop awning, which was baggy and covered with debris; also, in order that I might observe details in the black mass ahead. I directed the executive officer to post sentries all around the ship, but soon saw that there were no marines available, and no place forward to post them.

"Not being quite clear as to the condition of things forward, I next directed the forward magazine to be flooded, if practicable, and about the same time shouted out myself for perfect silence everywhere. This was, I think, repeated by the executive officer. The surviving officers were about me at the time on the poop. I was informed that the forward magazine was already under water, and after inquiring about the after magazine was told that it was also under water, as shown by the condition below, reported by those coming from the ward room and steerage.

"About this time fire broke out in the mass forward, over the central superstructure, and I inquired as to the spare ammunition in the Captain's pantry. That region was found to be subsiding very fast. At this time I observed, among the shouts or noises apparently on shore, that faint cries were coming from the water, and I could see dimly white, floating bodies, which gave me a better knowledge of the real situation than anything else. I at once ordered all boats to be lowered, when it was reported that there were only two boats available, namely, the gig and whaleboat. Both were lowered and manned by officers and men, and by my direction they left the ship and assisted in saving the wounded jointly with other boats that had arrived on the scene from the Spanish man-of-war, from the steamer City of Washington and from other sources. Later—I cannot state precisely how long—these two boats of the Maine returned to the starboard quarter alongside and reported that they had gathered in from the wreck all the wounded that could be found, and had transferred them to the other boats—to the Alfonso XII. or to the City of Washington.

"The poop deck of the Maine, the highest point, was by that time level with the gig's gunwale while she was afloat in the water along-

side. The fire amidships was burning fiercely, and the spare ammunition in the pilot house was exploding in detail. We had done everything that could be done so far as I could see.

"Lieutenant-Commander Wainwright whispered to me that he thought the 10-inch magazine forward had been thrown up into the burning mass, and might explode in time. I directed him then to get everything into the boats over the stern, and this was done, although there was some little delay in curbing the extreme politeness of the officers, who wanted to help me into the boat. I directed them to go first, as a matter of course, and I followed and got into the gig.

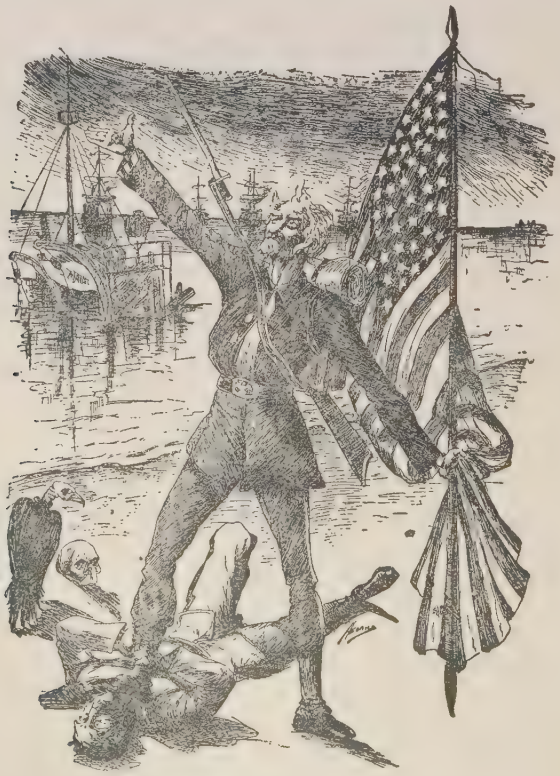
"We proceeded to the steamer City of Washington, and on the way I shouted to the boats to leave the vicinity of the wreck, and that there might be an explosion. I got Mr. Sylvester Scovel to translate my desire to one or two boats which were at that time somewhat nearer the fire that we ourselves were. Having succeeded in this, I went on board of the City of Washington, where I found our wounded all below in the dining saloon on mattresses, covered up, and being carefully attended by the officers and crew of that vessel. Every attention that the resources of the vessel admitted was being rapidly brought into use. I then went on deck and observed the wreck for a few minutes, and gave directions to have a muster taken on board the City of Washington and other vessels, and sat down in the Captain's cabin and dictated a telegram to the Navy Department. At this time various Spanish officers—civil, military and naval—appeared on board, in their own behalf and in the representative capacity, expressing sympathy and sorrow for the accident. The representatives of General Blanco and of the Admiral of the station came on board and the civil engineer of the province was on board in person. I asked them to excuse me for a few minutes, until I completed my telegram to the Navy Department.

"After finishing the telegram and putting it in the hand of a messenger to be taken on shore, I conversed for a few minutes with the various Spanish gentlemen around me, thanking them for the visit and their sympathy. I was asked by many of them the cause of the explosion, and I invariably answered that I must await further investigation. For a long time the rapid-fire ammunition continued to explode in the deck. The number of the wounded was reported to me later. I have some difficulty in remembering figures. I think we found about eighty-four or eighty-five men that night who survived. It was also reported to me that the wounded on board Spanish vessels had

been taken to the hospitals on shore, as were also the survivors who had reached the machina, in the neighborhood of the Shears on shore. To keep a clear head for the emergency, I turned in about 2 o'clock, getting little sleep that night, owing to the distressing groans of the wounded.

(Signed) C. D. Sigsbee

The following officers constituted the naval court of inquiry which investigated the cause of the Maine disaster: Captain W. T. Sampson, of the Iowa; Captain F. E. Chadwick, of the New York; Lieutenant-Commander W. P. Potter, of the New York, and Lieutenant-Commander Adolf Marix, of the Vermont. Captain Sampson acted as president, and Lieutenant-Commander Marix as judge advocate.



Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet—
Lest we forget—Lest we forget.—Kipling's Recessional
—St. Louis Globe Democrat.

CHAPTER IV.

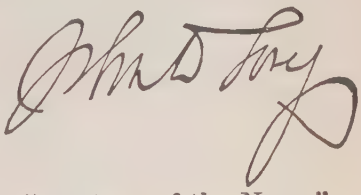
DEWEY'S NAVAL VICTORY AT MANILA.

THE NAVAL BATTLE of Manila on May 1, 1898, is without a parallel in naval history, and resulted in placing the name of Dewey on the roll with great naval heroes like Nelson, Farragut and Porter.

On that May morning Commodore (now Admiral) George Dewey, commander-in-chief of the American Asiatic squadron, met the Spanish Asiatic fleet, commanded by Rear Admiral Patricio Montojo y Pasaron, and completely destroyed it, with great loss of life to the Spaniards and without the loss of a man or ship on the American side.

Dewey's only orders from the Navy Department were as follows:

"Find the Spanish fleet, capture or destroy it.

(Signed) 

Secretary of the Navy."

This message was received in Mirs Bay after the Commodore had left Hong Kong, where the American Asiatic squadron had been assembled in anticipation of war with Spain. Commodore Dewey's squadron consisted of the following vessels: The Olympia (flagship), Raleigh, Boston, Baltimore, protected cruisers; the Concord and Petrel, gunboats; the Nanshan and Zafiro, supply transports, and the revenue cutter McCulloch, used as a dispatch boat.

The squadron was ordered out of Hong Kong harbor Sunday, April 24th, by Joseph Chamberlain, the English Colonial Secretary, in order to comply with the neutrality laws. It assembled in Mirs Bay, thirty miles distant, where it remained until Wednesday, April 27th, when Commodore Dewey received his orders through the American Consul

and weighed anchor at 2 P. M. to find the Spanish fleet and capture or destroy it.

The squadron arrived off Point Bolinao, island of Luzon, the largest of the Philippine group, at daybreak Saturday, April 30th. At this point the Commodore sent the Concord and Boston to reconnoiter Subig Bay, the entire squadron arriving in the bay at 5 P. M. As no signs of the Spanish fleet were to be seen in Subig, the Admiral steamed for Manila Bay, where his most trustworthy advices informed him that the Spanish fleet had taken refuge. Speed was reduced to six knots an hour in order to pass the Corregidor forts, which guard the entrance to the bay, at midnight.

All lights were put out except one hooded light on the stern of each vessel to guide the following ships. At 11 o'clock the crews were called to quarters and at midnight the silent and grim procession of fighting ships began to steal by the frowning forts through a channel planted with mines and torpedoes.

Corregidor is thirty miles from Manila, and entrance to the bay is had through two channels, one a mile and the other five miles in width. Commodore Dewey chose the wider passage, and all six of his fighting ships had passed the fort before his presence was discovered by the Spaniards. Just as the McCulloch was opposite the Corregidor fort on the mainland, a rocket was sent up by the Spaniards and one of the big guns of the land battery sent a shot dangerously near the little revenue cutter. The McCulloch fired three shots in return, while the Concord and Boston sent two in the same direction, and then the squadron steamed silently on for Cavite, in Manila Bay, where the Spanish Government had an arsenal and naval depot, and where the Spanish Admiral had chosen his fighting ground under the protection of the formidable land batteries.

In the gray dawn Commodore Dewey sighted the Spanish fleet. The fighting ships of Admiral Montojo were anchored in a line across the mouth of Canacoa Bay, the eastern end of the line reaching well beyond the Cavite arsenal and guarding the mouth of Bakor Bay. The ships were arranged in the following formation: The Don Juan de Austria lay in close to Sangley Point, the Don Antonia de Ulloa came next, the big white-hulled Castilla next, then the Reina Cristina, and finally on the extreme right lay the protected cruisers Isla de Cuba and Isla de Luzon. The Duero is supposed to have had no fixed station in the line, and merely acted as a free lance. These were the only ships in

the line of battle. Behind the arsenal were the Velasco, Argos, General Lezo and the transport Manila, none of which engaged in the firing during the fight. Some distance out beyond the right end of the line of fighting ships was the big mail steamer Isla de Mindanao, which had only recently arrived from Spain with ammunition and supplies. The Ulloa was anchored, her boilers were in the shipyard being repaired, and consequently she was stationary. This was also true of the Castilla.

Dewey's squadron was still seven miles distant, but the forts at Cavite opened fire, their shells all falling short.

The American ships made no reply, but steamed straight ahead towards Manila, turned and came back on the Cavite side and then made straight for the forts and the Spanish fleet, the Olympia, with Dewey on the bridge, leading the way.

The Spanish forts and ships kept up a perfect fusillade, but no gun was fired from an American ship until the Olympia was opposite the fort. It was exactly 5:35 o'clock when Commodore Dewey spoke the memorable words which inaugurated the destruction of the Spanish fleet: "You may fire when you are ready, Gridley." Then the forward eight-inch rifles spoke, and the Olympia swung round and poured broadside after broadside from her five-inch batteries. The other ships followed in order and each did execution upon the Spanish ships and forts, after passing which they turned a half-circle and went slowly back, working their starboard batteries. Five times the American squadron executed this maneuver, and then withdrew out of range, although the Spaniards kept up an incessant fire. The auxiliary vessels were not entirely out of range, but the occasional shots which fell near them were ignored by men whose eyes were strained toward the fighting fleet. Dewey's ships were seen to be almost constantly enveloped in the smoke of their own guns, while around them the enemy's shots were falling thick and fast. The splashes of water were so close to our ships that it seemed impossible they could escape great damage.

The Spanish forces were fighting with desperate courage, but they were poor marksmen, and recklessly wasted their ammunition. They ought to have had an exact range on the American ships with their 10-inch Krupp guns on the shore batteries, where one gun is calculated to be worth three on shipboard. They ought to have planted a disastrous shot on one of Dewey's six ships, even if by accident, but they did not.

When the engagement began the Spanish fleet was at anchor, and some of the ten fighting ships did not get into action for effective work

before they were destroyed. Admiral Montojo got up steam on the Reina Cristina, his flagship, and at 7 o'clock steamed out boldly for a duel with the Olympia. It was a brave but disastrous act. The Reina Cristina was a ship of about 3,500 tons, while the Olympia is about 5,800 tons, nearly twice the size, and carrying much heavier guns and more of them. Admiral Montojo's only hope must have been to have engaged the Olympia at such short range that both ships would go down together, but he was met by such a deadly fire from the American fleet that advance was impossible. When he attempted to escape, an 8-inch shell from the Olympia entered the stern of the Reina Cristina, and raked her fore and aft, killing Captain Cadarso and from sixty to ninety men, and setting her afire. Admiral Montojo, though wounded, transferred his flag to the Isla de Cuba, but did not have any better success. Several of his ships were already on fire.

One thrilling incident of the early part of the engagement was when two torpedo-boats darted out from the shore straight toward the Olympia. The big guns of the cruiser could not find such small targets, but when they came within range they were riddled by shots from the secondary battery. The foremost blew up and sunk with all hands on board; the hindmost succeeded in reaching the shore, but was beached in a sinking condition.

Dewey's fleet opened fire at 5:35, and at 7:35 ceased firing for breakfast. The Commodore had passed five times alongside the Spanish fleet, and had not lost a man or received a material injury to a ship. On the other side the slaughter had been terrible, and the two largest ships, the Reina Cristina and the Castilla, were on fire and sinking.

Commodore Dewey knew that except for some further disagreeable details the battle was over. It was a stifling hot day, his men were tired, hungry and choked with powder smoke, so the fleet coolly ceased firing and put out toward the McCulloch and transports, for breakfast, while the anxious watchers on these auxiliary vessels wondered if the unexpected move meant Dewey's defeat.

There were brave men in that battle, and the Americans in their strength were not less brave than the Spaniards, desperate in their weakness. Throughout the storm of shot and shell Commodore Dewey and his staff were on the bridge of the flagship, and gave no heed when the deck was ploughed up at their feet, or the rigging cut above their heads. On all the ships the commanding officers scorned the conning towers, and, as Captain Wildes said, they were "lucky." When Cap-

tain Wildes said it he was on the bridge of the Boston with a sun helmet, a palm-leaf fan and a cigar, and the reason he said it was because a shell went through the foremast three feet above his head, and burst about ten feet over the side.

It is like the Yankees to win a battle as coolly and comfortably as possible, so, after breakfast, Dewey waited until about 11 o'clock, when a cool breeze sprung up, which would blow away the smoke, and make fighting much more agreeable.

The second round began at 11:16, when the Baltimore, to save the Olympia's ammunition, went in ahead, and engaged the Cavite batteries, which, at close range, were soon silenced. That left the remainder of the Spanish fleet at Dewey's mercy, but the plucky Dons would not surrender, and, under the combined fire of the attacking fleet, the Don Antonio de Ulloa went down with all her flags flying.

At 12:30 the squadron ceased firing, the batteries being silenced, and most of the ships being sunk, burned and deserted. Then the squadron returned to an anchorage off Manila, leaving the little Petrel to go into the shallows and finish the smaller Spanish gunboats. The Petrel blazed away at close quarters with such coolness that she was dubbed "the baby battleship" by the crews of the other ships, and at 1:05 the last Spanish flag, that on the Cavite arsenal, was hauled down, and a white one raised in its place.

Dewey had obeyed his orders, and finished the Spanish fleet with neatness and dispatch. He had sunk the Reina Cristina, Castilla and Don Antonio de Ulloa, burned the Don Juan de Austria, Isla de Luzon, Isla de Cuba, General Lezo, Marques del Duero, El Correo, Velasco and the transport Isla de Mindanao, and captured the transport Manila, laden with supplies, the tugs Rapido and Hercules, and several launches. Over 200 Spaniards were killed, and from 500 to 700 wounded, while Dewey's squadron did not lose a man and had only seven wounded, and these slightly. The few shots that struck the American ships did no material damage, while Spain's loss mounted into the millions.

Among the many incidents of the battle it is worth remembering that the American squadron was fired on by three Manila batteries, one at the Mole Head on the Pasig River, another on the south bastion of the walled city of Manila and a third at Malate, half a mile further south. The fire of these batteries was not returned on account of the hurt that might come to non-combatants, but Commodore Dewey sent word to Governor-General Augustin that if these batteries did not cease

firing the fleet would open fire on the city, and this message had the desired effect.

It was also a memorable fact that the Americans buried many of the Spanish dead and moved hundreds of their wounded to a place of safety.

It was the next day, May 2d, that the Zafiro, acting under Dewey's orders, cut the cable, after the Spanish authorities had refused to allow him to use it to communicate with his government. During the early part of that week the Commodore removed the mines from the harbor, destroyed the land batteries and sent the McCulloch to Hong Kong to report the splendid victory. Dewey's work had only begun, and it was nearly three months later that the city of Manila finally surrendered, but the battle of Manila Bay, the greatest of the war, had been fought and won in less than half a day.

The commanders of the American vessels in the battle of Manila were as follows: Olympia, Captain C. V. Gridley; Boston, Captain Frank Wildes; Raleigh, Captain J. B. Coghlan; Baltimore, Captain N. M. Dyer; Concord, Commander Asa Walker; Petrel, Commander E. P. Wood; McCulloch, Captain D. B. Hodgson.

The Spanish commanders were: Reina Cristina, Captain Luis Cadarso; Castilla, Captain Alonzo Mordadoy Pita de Viega; Don Juan de Austria, Captain Juan de la Concha; Don Antonio de Ulloa, Jose Itarnalde; Isla de Cuba, Captain Jose Sidrach; Isla de Luzon, Lieutenant-Commander Miguel Perez Moreno; Marques del Duero, Lieutenant-Commander Salvador Morena de Guerra.

Probably no description of the famous battle can have a greater interest and value for the American people than Admiral Dewey's official report of the engagement, which is as follows:

"Flagship Olympia, Cavite, May 4, 1898.

"The squadron left Mirs Bay April 27th, arrived off Bolinao on the morning of April 30th, and, finding no vessels there, proceeded down the coast and arrived off the entrance to Manila Bay on the same afternoon. The Boston and the Concord were sent to reconnoitre Port Subig. A thorough search was made of the port by the Boston and the Concord, but the Spanish fleet was not found. Entered the south channel at half-past 11 P. M., steaming in column at eight knots. After half the squadron had passed a battery on the south side of the channel opened fire, none of the shots taking effect. The Boston and McCulloch re-

turned the fire. The squadron proceeded across the bay at slow speed and arrived off Manila at daybreak, and was fired upon at a quarter past five A. M. by three batteries at Manila and two near Cavite, and by the Spanish fleet anchored in an approximately east and west line across the mouth of Bakor Bay, with their left in shoal water in Canacao Bay.

"The squadron then proceeded to the attack, the flagship Olympia, under my personal direction, leading, followed at a distance by the Baltimore, Raleigh, Petrel, Concord and Boston, in the order named, which formation was maintained throughout the action. The squadron opened fire at nineteen minutes to 6 A. M. While advancing to the attack two mines were exploded ahead of the flagship, too far to be effective. The squadron maintained a continuous and precise fire at ranges varying from 5,000 to 2,000 yards, counter-marching in a line approximately parallel to that of the Spanish fleet. The enemy's fire was vigorous, but generally ineffective. Early in the engagement two launches put out toward the Olympia with the apparent intention of using torpedoes. One was sunk and the other disabled by our fire and beached before they were able to fire their torpedoes.

"At 7 A. M. the Spanish flagship Reina Cristina made a desperate attempt to leave the line and come out to engage at short range, but was received with such a galling fire, the entire battery of the Olympia being concentrated upon her, that she was barely able to return to the shelter of the point. The fires started in her by our shell at the time were not extinguished until she sank. The three batteries at Manila had kept up a continuous fire from the beginning of the engagement, which fire was not returned by my squadron. The first of these batteries was situated on the south mole head at the entrance of the Pasig River, the second on the south position of the walled city of Manila, and the third at Malate, about one-half mile farther south. At this point I sent a message to the Governor-General to the effect that if the batteries did not cease firing the city would be shelled. This had the effect of silencing them.

"At twenty-five minutes to 8 A. M. I ceased firing and withdrew the squadron for breakfast. At sixteen minutes after 11 I returned to the attack. By this time the Spanish flagship and almost all the Spanish fleet were in flames. At half-past 12 the squadron ceased firing, the batteries being silenced and the ships sunk, burned and deserted.

"At twenty minutes to 1 the squadron returned and anchored off Manila, the Petrel being left behind to complete the destruction of the smaller gunboats, which were behind the point of Cavite. This duty was performed by Commander E. P. Wood in the most expeditious and complete manner possible. The Spanish lost the following vessels: Sunk, Reina Cristina, Castilla, Don Antonio de Ulloa; burned, Don Juan de Austria, Isla de Luzon, Isla de Cuba, General Lezo, Marques del Duero, El Correo, Velasco and Isla de Mindanao (transport); captured, Rapido and Hercules (tugs) and several small launches.

"I am unable to obtain complete accounts of the enemy's killed and wounded, but believe their losses to be very heavy. The Reina Cristina alone had one hundred and fifty killed, including the Captain, and ninety wounded. I am happy to report that the damage done to the squadron under my command was inconsiderable. There was none killed and only seven men in the squadron were slightly wounded. Several of the vessels were struck and even penetrated, but the damage was of the slightest, and the squadron is in as good condition now as before the battle.

"I beg to state to the department that I doubt if any commander-in-chief was ever served by more loyal, efficient and gallant Captains than those of the squadron under my command. Captain Frank Wildes, commanding the Boston, volunteered to remain in command of his vessel, although his relief arrived before leaving Hong Kong. Assistant Surgeon Kindelberger, of the Olympia, and Gunner J. C. Evans, of the Boston, also volunteered to remain after orders detaching them had arrived.

"The conduct of my personal staff was excellent. Commander B. P. Lamberton, chief of staff, was a volunteer for that position, and gave me most efficient aid. Lieutenant Brumby, Flag Lieutenant, and Ensign E. P. Scott, aid, performed their duties as signal officers in a highly creditable manner. Caldwell, Flag Secretary, volunteered for and was assigned to a subdivision of the 5-inch battery. Mr. J. L. Stickney, formerly an officer in the United States Navy, and now correspondent for the New York Herald, volunteered for duty as my aid, and rendered valuable services. I desire especially to mention the coolness of Lieutenant C. G. Calkins, the navigator of the Olympia, who came under my personal observation, being on the bridge with me throughout the entire fight and giving the ranges of the guns with an accuracy that was proven by the excellence of the firing.

"On May 2d, the day following the engagement, the squadron again

went to Cavite, where it remains. On the 3d the military forces evacuated the Cavite arsenal, which was taken possession of by a landing party. On the same day the Raleigh and Baltimore secured the surrender of the batteries on Corregidor Island, parolling the garrison, and May 4th the transport Manila, which had been around in Bakor Bay, was towed and made a prize.

George Dewey

"Commodore Commanding the Asiatic Squadron, U. S. N."

Uncle Sam adds to his national naval portrait gallery.—Denver Republican.

CHAPTER V.

THE STORY OF THE SINKING OF THE MERRIMAC.

IN A WAR so surprisingly short as that between Spain and the United States more heroes appeared in the hours than usually develop in the days of longer contests, and no incident will be longer remembered than the sinking of the Merrimac in the harbor of Santiago in the hope of "bottling up" Cervera's fleet. The songsters shall sing the praise of the sailors' daring, while the historians shall regard the pages devoted to the officer and the men of the Merrimac as among the most intensely thrilling in their accounts of the men whose fear of death vanished in the glory of their daring for flag and country.

In the school-houses where the Stars and Stripes are daily saluted by the children, sturdy lads in speaking their pieces will forget embarrassment in the enthusiasm of their theme and blushing lassies pay tribute to Hobson and his sailors in high pitch heroics. "The Gallant Four Hundred" will be laid on the shelf and the "cannon to left of them, cannon to right of them, cannon in front of them" shall be those that "volleyed and thundered" at the Merrimac from the Morro, the western battery, Smith Cay and the Reina Mercedes.

As the historian must deal with the personalities of his heroes and delve into old volumes, newspapers and records for characteristics, the story that Hobson on his return was kissed by crowds of admiring women will be retold, but not in the spirit of an excitable journalism which made much of little and a hero seem small, but with the vivid truth that he was a brave, devoted son of loving parents and that when the narrow entrance of the harbor of Santiago was ablaze with light from the flashes of the Spaniards' guns Hobson thought of the patient, devoted mother and brave old father, and it will further be remembered that out of his small salary as a lieutenant in the United States Navy he sent half for the pressing needs of his home, and men will rightly reason that the officer who led the gallant crew of the Merrimac on her desperate errand was a man true to country, to those he loved and

the traditions of his uniform, and that his kissing the girls was but the gallantry of a true tar with warm Southern blood in his veins, and many shall approvingly remark "that to the brave belong the fair."

The glory of Hobson and his men of the Merrimac is a bright page in American history, where, written in letters of gold, appear the names of

Lieutenant Richmond Pearson Hobson,
First-class Gunner's Mate George Charette,
Chief Boatswain Osborn W. Deignan,
Coxswain Randolph Clausen,
Master of Arms Daniel Montague,
Machinist George F. Phillips,
Francis Kelley,
John Murphy.

It will be remembered to the everlasting credit of the American navy that to the fortunate few who entered into the valley of death and came forth from the scream of mighty missiles, the deep roar of exploding mines and a dreadful hail of Mauser bullets to place their names on the glorious lists of the Nation's heroic sons, must be added the crews of every blockading ship at Santiago de Cuba, for when the nature of the Merrimac's desperate mission was told to the tars, officers and men were unanimous in volunteering their services.

No fanatical Moslem belief that death in battle meant salvation of the soul and everlasting happiness nerved the men to volunteer for so desperate a task. It was the spirit of the American navy, that has made us invincible on the seas, which took possession of the crews, and those who were finally chosen were greatly envied, though it was evident that they were about to offer up their lives as patriotic sacrifices with no other reward in sight than the seeming certainty of the sailors' heroic death. Though many were sick with disappointment, yet it was plain to them that few were needed or could be spared for the sacrifice, and after the first keen grief had passed, the brave hearts of the navy went out in hope to the little band ready and eager to seek death and surrender the life that was strong within them as the proud blood in young veins beat strongly because it was about to be shed for country.

Cervera was with his fleet in the harbor of but a single narrow entrance and with banks that bristled in big guns, manned by a fierce enemy, and the wisest plan seemed to be to hold him there captive, to starve him into submission—for it is a rule of war that the enemy seek-

ing fortified shelter must defend himself not only against assault, but from the ravages of starvation and disease.

It was, of course, perfectly understood that Cervera, at the first opportunity, would seek to escape, or suddenly, on some dark night, when the rays of the search-light had lost their power to penetrate the torrents of the tropics, or the low lying mists of the shores, to send out his dreaded swift destroyers to discharge their torpedoes against the helpless battleships, rending and destroying them.

Lieutenant Hobson, a naval constructor, and therefore regarded by the men of the sea, rather than of the drawing board, as scarcely fitted for fighting, realized with his commanders the importance of keeping the enemy from possible escape or night-time offensiveness, and presented a plan for sinking a collier across the channel well within the bordering walls of the harbor. He fully appreciated the danger of those who should attempt the fulfillment of his plans, and as a man sought that duty for himself.

He plead for his right. Having conceived, it was he who should conclude the undertaking. He convinced the Admiral and his officers of the feasibility of the scheme and his personal privilege to superintend its performance. They felt assured that it would mean the loss of at least seven brave men, and Hobson himself had estimated the cost of the enterprise and was not fearful. He had his way and the Merrimac was chosen.

She had been a tramp steamer and had aboard some five thousand tons of coal for the use of the blockading squadron. She was a two-masted iron steamship of five thousand tons register and had been purchased by the Government. Her captain was James Miller, who was credited a particularly brave and skillful seaman, and when he learned that he was not to be of the little crew that was to take her on her great errand, it is related that in his chagrin he wept and would not be comforted. Disappointed, he did not forget his coxswain and other men who had begged him to use his influence to have them sent on the Merrimac's expedition.

When the Merrimac was chosen she was lying alongside the Massachusetts, which was taking on coal. The men at work were hurried in the discharge of the fuel, as it had been intended to start within twenty-four hours. Everything of any value on the Merrimac was taken from her to the other ships and while this was being done a crew of gunners' mates fixed about the ship, under the water line, seven mines which

were intended to blow out her bottom when she was just in the right position. Two large, heavy anchors were placed forward and aft to hold the Merrimac across the channel preliminary to sinking her. The captain's gig was tied aft to float adrift, so that when the Merrimac sunk the crew were to jump and swim to her.

Hobson's instructions to the crew were as follows: "After you are all in the boat row out one-half ship's length from the ship to avoid the suction and wait a reasonable length of time for me. I will stay on the bridge and explode the mines. If you do not see me after waiting a reasonable length of time, make for the fleet."

After Lieutenant Hobson had expressed himself as satisfied with every preparation, early in the evening of June 1, he announced the selection of his crew. They had just said farewell to their envious comrades on the several ships, but there was not an anxious face among them, for they were inspired to the supreme duty. Diegnan, through his acquaintance with the Merrimac's peculiarities in responding to her rudder, for she was cranky at times, was chosen to be the helmsman. The electric batteries that were to tear out the ship's bottom when she had been steered so as to lie across the channel, were put in charge of George Charette, first-class gunner's mate on the New York. Boatswain Mullen of the New York was responsible for the forward anchor. The assignment for duty in the fire-room was given to Francis Kelley, a water-tender on the Merrimac. He was to keep up steam until ordered to desert by the commander of the expedition. The engineer was selected in the person of George F. Phillips, a machinist on the Merrimac.

It was a gallant crew that Lieutenant Hobson drilled in their several duties, so that there should be no mistake at the critical time. With the exception of the helmsman, stationed by Hobson's side on the bridge, ropes were tied to the wrists of the several men, so that the commander could signal them. Of the perfection of the plan Diegnan says: "Lieutenant Hobson arranged all details in a precise and careful manner, and I, in common with all the crew, felt willing to obey his commands and follow him anywhere, so great was our confidence in his ability and bravery."

Then came a night that the men of the Merrimac can never forget, for it was filled with uncertainty and grave dangers. It was pitch dark and to the imaginative every shadow seemed a spectre and the gurgle of the waters, separated by the black hull, was a constant alarm,

suggestive of stealthily approaching destroyers. But the gallant crew had other things to think of as they stood at the threshold of Death within the portals of undying Fame. It had been arranged, for strategy is largely the science of war, that the New York was to chase the Merrimac and blaze away at her with blank cartridges, that the Spaniards might be led to believe that the Americans were after a blockade runner and the Merrimac might get close in and accomplish her purpose before her design was understood.

In the darkness the vessels lost sight of one another. This was disconcerting and seemed like a preliminary omen of bad luck. The minutes seemed hours, as they will do to men delayed in a desperate undertaking. Dawn broke unwelcome to those who had anticipated having met their fate before the sun had risen, just as the New York sighted the Merrimac, which, reassured by the presence of the great warship, turned her nose to the harbor entrance.

The torpedo-boat Porter, however, overtook Hobson and his men with instructions to postpone the attempt to bottle up Cervera. This was a desperate disappointment to those who had passed the long night with their nerves strung to the high tension of braving unknown dangers, whose natural solution seemed to be annihilation. Lieutenant Hobson's plea that daylight could not prevent him from entering the harbor was futile and his request for permission to continue on his enterprise was very properly refused.

The enterprise was hazardous enough under cover of night—in broad daylight the purpose would have been immediately understood and would have led to the utter destruction of the Merrimac and her crew. No useful purpose could have been served, though to the overwrought nerves of the Lieutenant and his men, the postponement was a shock and seeming shame and the delay more painful than immediate action. It is unofficially related that Hobson berated his superior for the order to return and claimed that men could not stand such strains and that the enterprise should have been continued to its completion, and it is further unofficially stated that Admiral Sampson made allowance for the insubordination, and that, appreciative of the heroic character of the undertaking and the suppressed excitement attendant on it, he saw no breach of naval etiquette. At any rate he advised the worn-out officer and men to take a rest and refresh themselves for the ordeal that was to come with the night.

While the men slept, for healthy men will soon fall to sleep even if

their nerves are vibrating with excitement, several changes were made in the plans. John Murphy, coxswain of the Iowa, was substituted for Boatswain Mullen, and there was no more heartsick and dejected sailor in the fleet than Mullen, who was to lose the laurels after the awful night that ended in a postponement.

It was decided that the lifeboat was not a sufficient safeguard for the men who were staking their lives, with the odds a thousand to one against them. There was an idea, that proved to be the saving one, that the addition of a catamaran might lessen the odds. This made the futility of the night that went for nothing seem providential. Lieutenant Hobson's plans were further changed, the mines being rearranged so that each man could touch off one after he had performed his duties.

The helmsman, Diegnan, who had been on duty all the previous night, was utterly worn out and asked for relief that he might rest until evening. The coxswain of the New York, Randolph Clausen, was sent to the Merrimac, and this was that young man's opportunity to be with those whose names shall last with history. Clausen had a persuasive tongue in his head as well as a brave heart in his breast, and he made the most of his accomplishments.

He showed to Lieutenant Hobson the absolute necessity of his remaining with the Merrimac, urging that should one or more of the crew be killed before the boat was sunk, particularly should the other helmsman be struck, his services would be needed. The Lieutenant asked Clausen if he was a good oarsman. There were none better, according to Clausen, and that settled it. Hobson agreed with the indulgent, sad smile of one who allows another to go with him to death, through the feeling of kinship in daring desire and out of very admiration of bravery.

Not to be again disappointed by the too sudden coming of the dawn, Hobson decided to start earlier than on the previous night, and the Merrimac began her last journey a little before 2 A. M. Guided by the outlines of the mountains, she cruised up and down in front of the harbor entrance. Ensign Joseph Powell of the New York followed in her wake, ready to rescue at the risk of his own life those that might be spared from the death-trap.

There had been a number of men assisting on the Merrimac and at 3 o'clock they were all ordered off. They had to be accounted for, as there was a grave fear of stowaways, such was the spirit of the Navy and

so great the desire to go. A last grasp of the hand and fervently spoken farewell and the crew were left to the fate that awaited them in the narrow channel of the harbor.

The men stripped off all clothing except trunks and stockings, though Hobson had on underwear and shoes. Each man wore a cork life-preserver and had strapped about his waist a pistol and cartridge belt with thirty-two rounds of ammunition. Such was the armament of a vessel about to stand the fire of Krupp guns, Howitzers and Mausers.

They were a sturdy lot, as they stood at their several posts, broad-shouldered, deep-chested, strong-limbed American sailors, men among men, destined for a splendid future and the plaudits not only of their own nation, but of all men through all time. Friend and foe could but alike admire and hope to emulate them.

Francis Kelley was down at the hot grates, working like a demon, as he did a dozen men's work. Close to the torpedoes, under the water-line, the sweat pouring off him to sizzle among the hot embers falling to the grating-floor as he stirred up the fires, his face aglow with heat and heroic purpose, he fulfilled his duties in the brave way of the men below without the chance to see what is going on, but to suffer with over-heated air, and never lose heart, no matter what the sounds of crashing, tearing metal may be and never to leave until the signal to cease is given. He was all alone with the blazing fires and throbbing boilers, but his heart was stout.

George F. Phillips, machinist, was acting engineer down where the machinery moved with dizzy rapidity, as the great pistons pushed forward and backward under the steam power of the cylinders, and cranks and wheels and elbows played their many parts in perfect harmony, that would become demoniacal discord and destruction with the arrival of the first big shell, piercing the thin sides of the unprotected merchantman. Oil-can and cotton waste in hand, he was here and there and everywhere, but ever near the throttle valve, with ears strained for the signals—less exposed, but in perhaps greater danger, than the gallant Lieutenant on the bridge. He had too much to do to be afraid even if he had been that sort of man, which he was not.

George Charette, first-class gunner's mate on the New York, having reported in perfect order the electric batteries to be used in exploding the mines, that, barnacle-like, clung to the hull, was to get a closer view of the fortifications and their guns than he had ever seen in

sighting the great weapons of the flagship and was prepared to be sent skyward by the explosion he should make when he touched the electric wires together, or to die with his comrades if Spanish marksmanship should prove superior at short range to what he had seen it to be at great distances. His was a waiting and therefore a dreadful duty, but he had no fear in him and was ready and eager for his time to come.

John Murphy, coxswain of the Iowa, stood at the bow anchor, prepared to drop it the moment he should get the signal from Lieutenant Hobson, and his was a trying place, for he stood a splendid and the first mark for Spanish shots, and his duty was equal in importance to that of any of the men on the Merrimac. He was a Murphy, and therefore a descendant of a long line of fighting stock, and enjoyed his situation more than he feared it. That he did his duty when the time came goes without saying.

Daniel Montague, chief-master-of-arms on the New York, stood aft to let go at the proper time the other anchor and was at a disadvantage, compared to the position of his comrade Murphy, for he could not get the lay of the land, or see as the other could, but he had the blood and sinew of a hero and was at his post to the end.

Osborn W. Diegnan, coxswain of the Merrimac, was at the helm on the bridge amidships, with instructions that as soon as they got to the most narrow part of the channel his commander would order him to put the helm hard-aport and lash it there. In every way the young sailor acquitted himself so splendidly that he won for himself the admiration of a nation and made particularly proud the people of his native State, Iowa, and his fellow-townsmen of Stuart. He did his work with the calm ease he would have shown in the dog watches of the night, when steering the eccentric Merrimac over smooth seas in calm weather.

Close to him on the bridge stood Lieutenant Richmond Pearson Hobson, his firm jaw set in resolution and his keen eye taking in every detail of the harbor he was approaching, the ship he was directing and the countenances of the men he was commanding. In his perfect poise and well-balanced, graceful body, erect and yet elastic, he was just as ideal a naval officer in his underclothes as he would have been had he been attired in the full glittering regalia of his rank.

The Merrimac was headed for the harbor entrance. Lieutenant Hobson, by the binnacle light at the compass, looked at his watch and remarked: "It is just 3:20." There was a roar and vivid flash on

the port bow and the yell of a great shell. Diegnan's cap was carried away by the accompanying rushing wind. The gallant crew were now looking death straight in the face and not one cowered. Calmly, the Lieutenant said to the steersman: "Keep her straight in the channel." "Aye, aye, sir." Equally cool was the man at the wheel, fearless and faithful to his great trust.

The crash of the first gun was chorused by all the guns bearing on the boat and they were many and mighty. No thunder could rival the tumult of the close-at-hand monsters, belching out their flames in a glare of light that illuminated the ship as in the sunshine, and the shriek of the shells was a hideous din, accompanied by the regular rattle of the rapid-fire pieces, like the snare-drums of a Titanic orchestra rendering a Wagnerian finale of frenzied, mad musicians.

Hobson said afterward in praise of his men:

"Projectiles were coming more as a continuous stream than as separate shots. But, through the whole storm, Jacky lay there ready to do his duty as he had been instructed to do it. There was not only the plunging fire from the forts on both sides, but a terrific horizontal fire from the fleet in the harbor, and it seemed as if the next projectile would wipe all the sailors out of life at once. If ever a feeling of 'each man for himself,' a feeling of 'get away from this,' 'get out of this anyway, anyhow' was to be justified it was justified then. Not a man so much as turned his head.

"Then, later, when we were on the catamaran and the enemy's picket boats came crawling up out of the darkness with their lanterns, the impulse was just as strong to slip off the raft and swim for the shore, or for the entrance of the harbor. The simple order was given: 'No man move until further orders.' And not a man moved or stirred for nearly an hour."

The fireman worked below like a demon. The engineer held the throttle to obey every signal, the man who had made certain of the batteries did not regret the cunning tongue that had gained him the opportunity to listen to this deafening salute to American valor, the one at the bow anchor and the one with the anchor aft quietly waited the tug of the rope at the wrist that should signal them that their work was at hand.

Hobson wisely judged the ship's position and then at the right moment shouted to the helmsman, "Hard aport." Diegnan did as he was bid and lashed the wheel. The Merrimac did not obey the helm at the

critical moment. Charette was sent to see what was the matter and reported one rudder chain shot away. The engineer stopped his throbbing machinery and each man hurried to explode the mine assigned to him.

Diegnan says that on going below he met Clausen and that they, having joined the wires together, were knocked off their feet by the explosion below them, and then he says: "After we had exploded the mine we went to the starboard side amidships, where it was arranged we were to meet after performing our duties. We were only there about a minute when Montague joined us, and in another minute or two we were joined by Charette, Murphy, Phillips and Lieutenant Hobson.

"We thought everybody was there, but in an instant a man's form appeared coming around the corner of the deck-house. Lieutenant Hobson drew his revolver and covered him, for a moment not realizing who it might be. The man proved to be Kelley.

"Kelley shouted, in his broad Scotch way: 'How long has this been going on? I thought it was the New York firing blank cartridges at us.'

"While he was approaching us he received a wound from a piece of an exploded shell, which injured him slightly on his lip and cheek.

"We all lay on the deck, packed like sardines in a box, with shots flying about our heads, expecting every minute to be killed. Under these trying circumstances Lieutenant Hobson ordered us to remain where we were, instead of carrying out the original plan of taking to the boat, because exposure at this moment above the rail would have meant certain death, the lights from the shore batteries making us easy targets."

The Merrimac and her men had been under fire from great guns but a ship's length away with but one man wounded, and he but slightly. The mysterious Providence that had made the Spanish artillery marksmanship wretched at long and short distances had so far spared the eight heroes. Suddenly the big ship, wounded to death, but chiefly by her own mines, lurched suddenly to starboard. Hobson, realizing that the boat would soon sink, said to his men: "Very good; they are helping us out. They are doing it for us. They will probably cease firing when she goes down."

Torrents of water commenced pouring in and the men grabbed the rail to keep from being washed into the hold. The ship listed to the other side and all scrambled over the rail, jumped overboard and swam to the catamaran. The firing ceased, to be followed by wild cheering,

for they believed that they had sunk a battleship, won their first victory and avenged Montojo's fleet destroyed by Dewey.

Though disappointed, they were nevertheless shouting with propriety, for the splendid courage of the American seamen had been made unavailing by one lucky shot from their batteries, which had torn away an anchor chain and made it impossible to swing the ship across the channel, there to sink her as an obstruction, which Cervera could not pass by if he should attempt to escape at the first chance of a bad night.

The men and their officer succeeded in reaching the catamaran, though they were drawn down by the suction of the sinking ship. They did not climb on it, as Hobson pointed out to the men that they would be picked off by the riflemen who were within easy range. A Spanish picket boat was between them and escape to the fleet and the tide was running in, carrying with it the wreckage of the Merrimac. The catamaran was not cut loose from the sunken vessel, for Hobson was wise enough to know that close to the ship and in a confusion of floating parts of the destroyed collier there was safety.

The Spanish fire ceased, but the danger was far from over. Holding to the catamaran the Americans had only their heads above the water. Capture was certain, though they knew that Ensign Joseph Powell was prowling about in a launch seeking to save them, for every now and then there were reports from the Spanish guns that had spied him on his daring effort to rescue any one who might be left from the Merrimac.

It is but proper and just in this connection to say of the Ensign that he continually exposed his launch to seeming destruction in his search, and that he did not leave the vicinity of the wreck until daylight, and there was no sign of friend. The certainty of capture through further delay made it necessary to return to the fleet with the dismal tidings that were expected. Hobson and his crew were not to be found, and while others who had been equally eager to enlist with Hobson mourned their comrades as dead they were very much alive to the perils that surrounded them.

They knew from what they had seen with their own eyes that the waters were populated with sharks, and when one of the men, to pass the time, perhaps, in lively conversation and add to the interest of a dramatic situation, mentioned the ugly monsters, it is related that Kelley remarked in his own dry way that the concussion of the exploding mines had killed all the sharks in the vicinity and that those

who might be expected to scent of the drop of blood trickling from his cheek had been scared away by the Spaniards' heavy fire or destroyed out at sea by the shells that had flown above the Merrimac. Indeed, he was much afraid that those shells might have done serious harm to the fleet four miles away.

The gay laugh that followed Kelley's disposition of the sharks welcomed the break of day and amazed the Spaniards in a launch who had come out to take a look at the sunken "battleship."

"Madre de Dios," cried a Castilian officer, as he exclaimed that the American "pigs" laughed at death and perhaps laughed when they were dead. The men knew they were discovered and from what they had heard of Spanish hospitality to captives were not sure but that they were sorry the sharks had not first found them. Eight rifles covered them and they felt that their time was closer at hand than it had been when the great guns guarding the harbor were bellowing at them. Hobson shouted in Spanish: "Is there an officer on board?" Receiving an affirmative answer he announced that they would surrender as prisoners of war and was told that they would have to swim to the launch one at a time and hand over their weapons.

Then occurred the only surrender of an arm in the war between Spain and America and it was the pistol of Lieutenant Hobson, hero of the Merrimac. Swimming to the launch he gave up his revolver and was hauled aboard. His comrades, less sensitive to the etiquette of war and with a better opportunity to avoid giving up their arms, unloosened their belts to let the pistols and cartridges sink to rest with the remains of the Merrimac.

The launch took her prisoners to the Reina Mercedes, where they were looked upon with the greatest curiosity. They were black as negroes, for they were covered with coal dust and oil that floated up to them from the sunken steamer. They were given baths and food and treated with consideration, though the men were kept from their Lieutenant, as the Spaniards believed in dividing the heroes. They scarcely knew what to expect from such dare-devils.

Diegnan, the helmsman, tells a most interesting story of Hobson's behavior. It seems that he first "demanded" a bath and when a Spanish officer repeated the word "demand" in an interrogative way, he changed it to "request." This is repeated, not in criticism of a brave man, but as an incident showing that one who had gone through what Hobson had would have at his tongue's end stern words and the change to "re-

quest" was not a humiliating submission, but the quick recognition of a gentleman that he had not been thoroughly polite to one whom the fortunes of war made his host.

The men are unanimous in their statement that they were treated kindly by Admiral Cervera, his officers and crew. Lieutenant Hobson was taken in the cabin and given a suit of officer's clothing, and while he was in there the executive officer questioned the men as to how many guns they had on their ship, complimenting them on their marksmanship. When told that the Merrimac was a collier, the Spaniards would not believe it at first, as they had suffered severely in the crossfire of their own batteries. Convinced of the truth by personal inspection of the sunken ship the officers of the Reina Mercedes were terribly discomfited, though they did take comfort in the fact that the channel was not completely blocked, though it was considerably narrowed.

Hobson and his men in Spanish hands and cast into prison were not to suffer only the ordinary experiences of tedious lingering, for there was an abundance of excitement still in store for them. The men were confined in a small cell, their officer being separated from them in another part of Morro prison. Their food was stinted, but they could not complain, as the Spaniards themselves were not living in luxury.

It was then that Americans learned that the Spaniard was really not so black as he had been painted and that the bombastic declarations of the honor of Spanish arms and Castilian chivalry were not altogether idle boasts, but that there were Spanish soldiers of high instincts and noble sentiments. Admiral Cervera, under a flag of truce, honored his country and won the hearts of his enemies by sending out word to Admiral Sampson that his men were safe and in need of dry clothing, knowing when he did so that the glad news would go to the homes of the heroes and that instead of mourning there would be great rejoicing among his foes and their friends. The published suspicion that he acted handsomely as he did because he realized his own great peril and sought to make easy the event of his own capture is unworthy tolerance among a brave nation, whose soldiers and sailors love an enemy worthy of their metal.

It is also good to note that the British Consul sent the prisoners coffee, tobacco and bread, though these were luxuries and almost worth their weight in gold in the besieged city, and that when, against Cervera's protest, the men were kept in Morro to save the fort from American bombardment, the same consul exercised his authority in the in-

terests of humanity and persuaded the Spaniards to remove their prisoners to safer quarters in the Reina Mercedes military hospital. He was not strong enough, however, to save Lieutenant Hobson from the perils of the guns of his own fleet.

Hobson says of his men when they were being questioned by the Spanish authorities:

"When it seemed uncertain whether or not a remnant of the Inquisition was to be revived, when the enemy did not know whether it was his fault or ours that a ship had been sunk, and rather inclined to the belief that he had sunk an American battleship and that we were the only survivors out of several hundred, the men were taken before the Spanish authorities and serious and impertinent questions put to them. Remember, they did not know what it might cost them to refuse to answer, Spanish soldiers of the guard standing before them, making significant gestures with their hands edgewise across their throats. Our seamen laughed in their faces.

"Then a Spanish major questioned Charette, because he spoke French, and asked him this question: 'What was your object in coming here?'

"And so long as I live I shall never forget the way Charette threw back his shoulders, proudly lifted his head and looked him in the eye as he said:

"'In the United States Navy, sir, it is not the custom for the seamen to know, or to desire to know, the object of an action of his superior officer.'"

Coxswain Diegnan tells a remarkable story of an experience with a wounded Spanish cavalryman in the hospital prison, though it sounds improbable and much like a sailor's easily spun yarn, yet it must be remembered that men of the Merrimac stamp are not apt to be given to overtelling their tales, or reckless, though unintentional, mixing of truth with fiction. Diegnan says the cavalryman "dashed up to the door of our cell reeling in his saddle, grabbed his carbine and pointing it at us, cursed the Americans. He was just in the act of firing on us when one of the hospital attendants disarmed him and threw the cartridges out of his gun. The trooper expired from his wounds a few minutes later. After this incident we were ordered to keep out of sight as much as possible, and not to expose ourselves to armed Spaniards, who were passing to and fro all the time."

Locked in their cell the men heard heavy firing from the fleet and

the musketry fire of the army was quite distinct. The boys now and then heard bullets tear through the roof with more gladness than alarm, for they were on familiar terms with danger and knew that help was not far off, especially when they saw from their grating a scared sentry drop his Mauser that had been split by a roving Krag-Jorgensen ball.

Their joy when they heard on July 6th that they were to be released in exchange for Spanish prisoners was almost unbounded and might have broken out into cheering had it not been that caution is not foreign to valor, and that the timid have no monopoly of common sense.

Lieutenant Hobson was brought to his men. Blindfolded they were taken to meet Colonel John Jacob Astor, the American officer bringing Spanish prisoners for exchange. Reaching the American lines after their marvelous encounter and victory over death the Merrimac boys had collapsed from weakness, but with the bugles among the trenchers sounding the National anthem, the naval heroes revived, while the heroes of the army sang in mighty chorus, waved their hats and made the hills echo with their wild cheering. Out of the Valley of Death to the hill-tops, impregnable with its guardian thin lines of American troops, the men of the Merrimac were again under the shelter of the Stars and Stripes, the dear flag for which they had dared and had not died.

That same day they were taken to the coast and carried out to the New York, sailors of every ship welcoming them back to glory over and with them and to exchange experiences, for the men of the Merrimac had missed the superb spectacle of the dreadful destruction of the fleet of their good friend, Admiral Cervera.

Hats off to American sailors.—Syracuse Herald.

CHAPTER VI.

STORY OF THE ROUGH RIDERS.

THE MOST UNIQUE REGIMENT EVER ORGANIZED—THE BATTLES OF LA GUASIMAS AND SAN JUAN.

IN THE official records the regiment commanded by Colonel (afterward General) Leonard Wood and Lieutenant-Colonel (afterward Colonel) Theodore Roosevelt is known as the First United States Volunteer Cavalry, but the name by which it is known to fame is the Rough Riders.

It was the most unique organization ever known in military annals. The Colonel, Dr. Leonard Wood, had served with General Miles in campaigns against the Apache Indians in Arizona, and although attached to General Miles' command as a surgeon, he was one of the best scouts and fighters in the army, and won the medal of honor for courage. At the breaking out of the war he was the medical adviser of President McKinley and Secretary of War Alger. Colonel Roosevelt, who originated the idea of raising a regiment among the rough riders and riflemen of the Rocky Mountains and the Great Plains, was at the time Assistant Secretary of the Navy. Both men had that strong love of adventure and contempt for danger that made them the natural leaders of such a body of fighters. Both were crack shots, splendid horsemen, and experienced in the hardships and dangers of frontier life.

The result was that they organized a regiment composed of cowboys, hunters, prospectors, ex-sheriffs and marshals, Indians, gamblers, ex-preachers and other fearless characters of the West. Then, finding that the regiment had not obtained its full quota, they filled the ranks with college men and "dudes." There were half-backs and quarter-backs, tennis champions and crack oarsmen, high jumpers, steeplechase riders, polo players and fashionable club men. It was a strange

gathering, and each and every man was subjected to a severe examination and physical test. The "dudes," so-called, rivalled the men from the "wild and woolly West" in feats of horsemanship and marksmanship, and in the entire regiment not one man ever shirked his duty or flinched in the face of danger.

Some of the most conspicuous members of the Rough Riders were Captain Bucky O'Neill (killed at the battle of San Juan Hill), famous throughout the West as a sheriff and Indian fighter, and at the time of entering the regiment was mayor of Prescott, Arizona; Captains Llewellyn and Curry, famous New Mexican sheriffs; Captain Allyn Capron (killed at La Guasimas), an ideal soldier; Cherokee Bill; Smoky Moore; Rattlesnake Pete; Pollock, a Pawnee Indian; Colbert, a Chickasaw Indian; Holderman, a Cherokee Indian; Sherman Bell, deputy marshal from Cripple Creek; McGinty, champion bronco boster of Oklahoma; Smith, a bear hunter from Wyoming; Dudley Dean, a famous Harvard quarter-back; Bob Wrenn, champion tennis player of America; Craig Wadsworth, celebrated as a steeple-chase rider; Joe Stevens, crack polo player; Hamilton Fish (killed at La Guasimas), ex-captain of the Columbia crew; Mason Mitchell, ex-chief of scouts in the Riel Rebellion; and Woodbury Kane, famous yachtsman. To enumerate all who were conspicuous for some act of bravery or physical prowess would be to call the regimental role.

The Rough Riders were mustered at San Antonio, and were with the first troops sent to Cuba. It fell to their lot to lead the advance on Santiago, and they had the honor of fighting the first land battle of the war, if we except the fight of the marines at Guantanamo. The Rough Riders' first engagement is known as the battle of La Guasimas, and while it lasted but little more than an hour it was one of the fiercest conflicts of the war.

The advance on Santiago began on June 24th. The Rough Riders had camped the previous night at Siboney, whence they had marched from Baquiri. After three hours' sleep, they broke camp at 5 o'clock in the morning and began to climb the trail along the high ridge above Siboney. While descending on the other side, at a point near Sevilla, called La Guasimas, they were met by a galling fire from Spaniards concealed in the tangled undergrowth and tall bushes. It was first supposed that the Rough Riders had run into an ambush, but the best authorities—eye witnesses of the fight—men like Richard Harding Davis, the famous correspondent, have shown that this was only true

in the sense that the regiment had met a concealed foe—but had not expected to meet him in the open. In fact, the Rough Riders were prepared for just such a reception and had marched with scouts in advance and a skirmish line well thrown out. Before the battle Colonel Wood had halted his column, had reconnoitered and discovered the enemy. His troops were in position before the firing began, but it began suddenly and at short range. If the Rough Riders were disconcerted it was because they could not see the enemy. In fighting their way through the brush they lost sight of each other, and it was some time before a line was formed connecting with the Tenth Cavalry on the right. In the meantime the Rough Riders had come out into the open, and kneeling on one knee they returned the fire from the thicket where the enemy lay. At the beginning of the fight they had thrown away their blankets and all surplus articles, some were stripped to shirt, trousers, canteen and cartridge belt. Every move they made was a forward one, and foot by foot they drove the enemy back. Lieutenant-Colonel Roosevelt was commanding the left of the line, part of the time giving orders and occasionally firing a carbine which he had picked up.

Colonel Wood finally decided upon a charge. It is now commonly referred to as "Wood's bluff," for the enemy outnumbered him greatly, but when the Spaniards saw that thin blue line coming steadily toward them, they imagined that the entire American army was behind it, and they fell back in disorder upon Santiago.

The Americans lost fifteen killed and fifty wounded, while the enemy's loss ran into the hundreds. Among the killed were Hamilton Fish and Captain Allyn Capron of the Rough Riders.

In the taking of San Juan July 1st the unmounted cavalry, the First and Tenth Regulars, and Roosevelt's Rough Riders bore the brunt of the fighting, again distinguishing themselves and adding fresh laurels to those already won at Las Guasimas. Our losses in these two engagements were twenty-two officers and two hundred and eight men killed, and eighty-one officers and 1,203 men wounded. These figures are from General Shafter's report.

The plan of our forces in both engagements was to drive the Spaniards back trench by trench. This feat was rendered all the more difficult because the Spaniards were using smokeless powder. That it was finally accomplished is a lasting tribute to the courage of the American soldier, both regular and volunteer.

The battle of San Juan and the subsequent operations of the Rough

Riders are graphically described in the following official report made by Colonel Roosevelt:

Trenches Outside of Santiago, July 4th.

Colonel Leonard Wood.

Sir: On July 1st the regiment, with myself in command, was moved out by your orders directly following the First Brigade. Before leaving the camping ground several of our men were wounded by shrapnel. After crossing the river at the ford we were moved along and up the right bank under fire and were held in reserve at a sunk road. Here we lost a good many men, including Captain O'Neill, killed, and Lieutenant Haskell, wounded. We then received your order to advance and support the regular cavalry in the attack on the intrenchments and block houses on the hills to the left.

The regiment was deployed on both sides of the road and moved forward until we came to the rearmost lines of the regulars. We continued to move forward until I ordered a charge and the men rushed the block house and rifle pits on the hill to the right of our advance. They did the work in fine shape, although suffering severely; the guidons of Troops E and G were first planted on the summit, though the first men up were some of A and B Troopers who were with me. We then opened fire on the intrenchments on a hill to our left, which some of the other regiments were assailing and which they carried a few minutes later.

Meanwhile we were under a heavy rifle fire from the intrenchments along the hills to our front, from whence they also shelled with a piece of field artillery until some of our marksmen silenced it. When the men got their wind we charged again and carried the second line of intrenchments with a rush. Swinging to the left we then drove the Spaniards over the brow of the chain of hills fronting on Santiago. By this time the regiments were much mixed and we were under a heavy fire both of shrapnel and from rifles, from the batteries, intrenchments and forts immediately in front of the city.

On the extreme front I now find myself in command with fragments of the Sixth Cavalry Regiment and two batteries under me. The Spaniards made one or two efforts to retake the line, but were promptly driven back. Both General Sumner and you sent me word to hold the line at all hazards and that night we dug a line of intrenchments across our front, using the captured Spanish intrenchment tools. We had

nothing to eat except what we captured from the Spaniards; but their dinners had fortunately been cooked and we ate them with relish, having been fighting all day.

We had no blankets or coats and lay by the trenches all night. The Spaniards attacked us once in the night and at dawn they opened a heavy artillery and rifle fire. Very great assistance was rendered us by Lieutenant Parker's Gatling Battery at critical moments; he fought his guns at the extreme front of the firing line in a way that repeatedly called forth the cheers of my men. One of the Spanish batteries which was used against us was directly in front of the hospital, so that the Red Cross flag flew over the battery, saving it from our fire for a considerable period.

The Spanish Mauser bullets made clean wounds, but they also used a copper jacketed or brass jacketed bullet which exploded, making very bad wounds indeed. Since then we have continued to hold the ground; the food has been short, and until to-day we could not get our blankets, coats or shelter tents, while the men lay all day under the fire of the Spanish batteries, intrenchments and guerrillas in trees, and worked all night in the trenches, never even taking off their shoes, but they are in excellent spirits and ready and anxious to carry out any orders they receive.

We went into the fight about 490 strong, 86 were killed or wounded and there are half a dozen missing. The great heat prostrated nearly forty men, some among the best in the regiment. Besides Captain O'Neill and Lieutenant Haskell, Lieutenants Leahy, Deveraux and Case were wounded. All behaved with great gallantry. As for Captain O'Neill, his loss is one of the severest that could have fallen on the regiment. He was a man of cool head, great executive ability and literally dauntless courage.

The guerrillas in trees not only fired at our troops, but seemed to devote themselves especially to shooting at the surgeons, the hospital assistants with Red Cross badges on their arms, the wounded who were being carried in litters and the burying parties. Many of these guerrillas were dressed in green uniforms. We sent out a detail of sharpshooters among those in our rear, also along the line where they had been shooting the wounded, and killed thirteen.

To attempt to give a list of the men who showed signal valor would necessitate sending in an almost complete roster of the regiment. Many of the cases which I mention stand merely as examples of the rest, not

as exceptions. Captain Jenkins acted as major and showed such conspicuous gallantry and efficiency that I earnestly hope he may be promoted to major as soon as a vacancy occurs. Captains Llewellyn, Muller and Luna led their troops throughout the charges, handling them admirably. At the end of the battle, Lieutenants Kane, Greenwood and Goodrich were in charge of their troops immediately under my eye and I wish particularly to commend their conduct throughout.

Corporals Waller and Fortesque and Trooper McKinley, of Troop E; Corporal Rhoades, of Troop D; Troopers Albertson, Winter, MacGregor and Ray Clark, of Troop F; Troopers Bugbee, Jackson and Waller, of Troop A; Trumpeter MacDonald, of Troop L; Sergeant Hughes, of Troop B, and Trooper Geiren, of Troop G, all continued to fight after being wounded, some very severely; most of them fought until the end of the day. Trooper Oliver B. Norton, of B, who, with his brother, was by my side throughout the charging, was killed while fighting with marked gallantry. Sergeant Ferguson, Corporal Lee and Troopers Bell and Carroll, of Troop K; Sergeant Dame, of Troop E; Troopers Goodwin, Campbell and Dudley Dean, Trumpeter Foster, of B, and Troopers Greenwold and Bardehan, of A, are all worthy of special mention for coolness and gallantry, and they all merit promotion when the time comes.

But the most conspicuous gallantry was shown by Trooper Rowland. He was wounded in the side in our first fight, but kept in the firing line; he was sent to the hospital the next day, but left it and marched out to us, overtaking us and fought all through this battle with such indifference to danger that I was forced again and again to rate and threaten him for running needless risks.

Great gallantry was also shown by four troopers whom I cannot identify and by Trooper Winslow Clark, of G. It was after taking the hill I had called to rush the second, and having by that time lost my horse, climbed a wire fence and started toward it. After going a couple of hundred yards under a heavy fire, I found that no one else had come. As I discovered later, it was simply because in the confusion with men shooting and being shot they had not noticed me start. I told the five men to wait a moment as it might be misunderstood if we all ran back, while I ran back and started the regiment, and as soon as I did so the regiment came with a rush. But meanwhile the five men coolly lay down in the open, returning the fire from the trenches. It is to be wondered at that only Clark was seriously wounded, and he called out

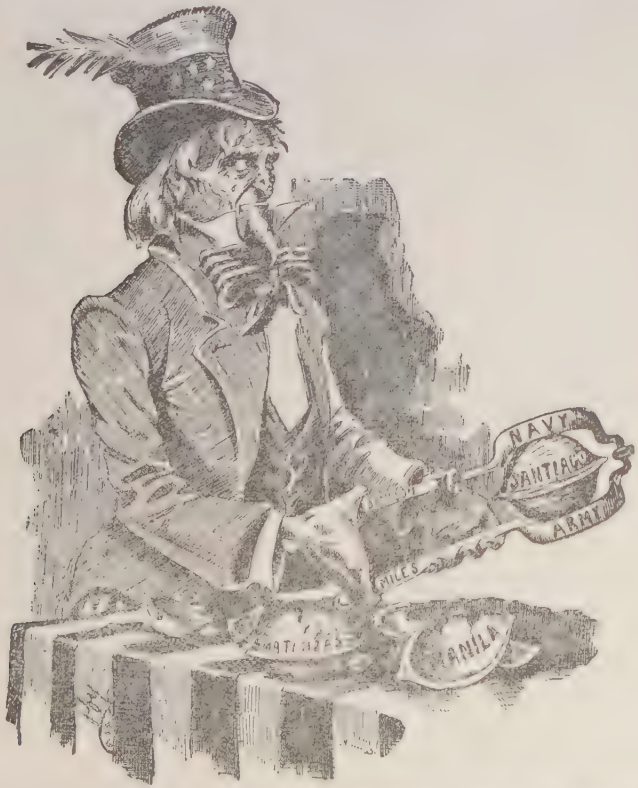
as we passed again to lay his canteen where he could reach it, but to continue the charge and leave him where he was. All the wounded had to be left until after the fight, for we could spare no men from the firing line.

Theodore Roosevelt

Colonel Wood, of the Rough Riders, was promoted to be brigadier-general and placed in control of Santiago, where he added to his splendid record by transforming a filthy, unhealthy city into a clean and healthy one by putting in operation rigid sanitary measures.

The Rough Riders were given a great reception upon their return, and Colonel Roosevelt, who had succeeded Colonel Wood in command, was elected Governor of New York.

"SHELLING" THE ENEMY.



Uncle Sam—"This one's tougher than the others, but it'll crack all right."—Judy, London.

CHAPTER VII.

NAVAL VICTORY OFF SANTIAGO.

DESTRUCTION OF CERVERA'S FLEET BY THE NORTH ATLANTIC SQUADRON UNDER COMMODORES SAMPSON AND SCHLEY.

THE SECOND naval battle of importance, and in some respects the most decisive conflict of the war, was fought off Santiago de Cuba and resulted in the complete destruction of Admiral Cervera's fleet by the North Atlantic and Flying squadrons, under command of Acting Rear-Admiral W. T. Sampson and Commodore W. S. Schley.

This great naval fight was almost a parallel for Dewey's victory at Manila, as but one man was killed on the American side, while the Spaniards suffered great loss of life and the complete destruction of all their ships.

The Spanish squadron sailed from Cape Verde for the West Indies on April 29th, and it was known that at that time Cervera had a clear ocean before him.

Commodore Schley's flying squadron did not start south until May 13th, which was the day after the Spanish squadron was reported off Martinique. The day after Schley left, the Spanish fleet was sighted off Curacoa, then off Puerto Rico, and a dodging match continued until Admiral Cervera, short of coal and needing supplies and repairs, put into Santiago de Cuba to recoup before measuring arms with the strong blockading fleet off Havana.

On May 19th it was reported that Cervera was in Santiago harbor, but it was several days later before this report was officially confirmed, and the blockade established which effectually bottled him up. Strategists may differ as to the necessity or wisdom of Cervera's move, but it is generally conceded that it would have been better for the United States if he could have been caught in the open and forced to a fair, stand-up fight, before he had intrenched himself behind the guns at the mouth of the bottle.

It is certain that the free movement of the navy was hampered by the demands of blockade and defense, and that with more available ships the Cape Verde fleet could at once have been destroyed or captured upon the high seas. On the other hand, it is maintained by some of the best authorities that the ships under Admiral Sampson and Commodore Schley could have done the trick had they been put upon the search more wisely, promptly and boldly. It is certain that each of these commanders had his opportunity and neither succeeded in taking advantage of it.

It is possible that Schley was overcautious when he strained his guns to bombard the bottled fleet at an excessive range before they had completely hidden themselves in the harbor. It is equally possible to question Sampson's wisdom in authorizing the sinking of the Merrimac in the channel, although the heroism of Hobson's vain attempt be conceded. The Merrimac was sunk June 4th, and proved to be as useless a demonstration as the various bombardments which broke the monotony of the blockade.

This drawing shows the position held by our several battleships during the blockade of the harbor of Santiago de Cuba. All night in watches of two hours each two ships at a time played their searchlights on the entrance to the harbor and kept it light as day.

In spite of the magnificent fleet concentrated at the mouth of the harbor, and in spite of the spectacular assaults of the Vesuvius, the navy was compelled to call upon the army for a land attack upon Santiago,

a city that under other conditions would have had comparatively little strategic importance.

Whatever may have been the American army's condition on July 3d, its presence resulted in Blanco's order and Cervera's desperate dash for liberty, just as the destruction of the fleet resulted in Toral's surrender and the practical conclusion of the war. With Cervera's fleet out of the way, the defense of the Atlantic seaboard was no longer necessary, the blockade of Cuba could be made complete, Havana must eventually yield, the capture of Porto Rico was a mere matter of time, and a naval demonstration against Spain itself was not impossible.

Great as were the results of this battle, and terrible as was the Spanish loss in ships and men, it was won without any great danger to the American fleet or any doubt as to the result. Admiral Sampson had the pick of the navy on that blockade, which was wise and proper; he maintained the blockade with patience and vigilance, which was his duty, and he had given general orders: "Should the enemy come out, close in and head him off," which merely authorized the commanders of ships to do what any man with reasonable common sense would do of his own accord.

On that bright, tropical Sunday morning, the blockading fleet lay in a half circle from shore to shore, all facing the narrow entrance, which was guarded by Morro's guns on the right and Socapa battery upon the left, both in commanding positions on high headlands.

During the previous night the blockading fleet had included the four first-class battleships Iowa, Indiana, Oregon and Massachusetts, the second-class battleship Texas, and the armored cruisers New York and Brooklyn, which in their aggregate tonnage and armament were nearly three times as strong as Cervera's fleet.

But at 4 o'clock on the morning of July 3d, the battleship Massachusetts had been sent to Guantanamo for coal, and at 8:55 Admiral Sampson's flagship, the New York, had signalled to the fleet to disregard her movements and had started for Siboney, in company with the torpedo boat Ericsson. Admiral Sampson's mission to Siboney was to visit General Shafter, who was suffering from heat prostration, and to confer with him regarding the critical position of the troops about Santiago.

Yet, after the departure of the Massachusetts and New York, the blockading fleet far outclassed that of Cervera. One of the best naval authorities in the world puts the Iowa, Indiana and Oregon in class A of fighting ships, the Texas in class C, and the Brooklyn in class F. The

same authority puts the four armored cruisers of Cervera's fleet, the Almirante Oquendo, Viscaya, Infanta Maria Teresa and Cristobal Colon, in class F. The aggregate tonnage of the five American ships was 47,000, against 27,000, the aggregate for the four Spanish ships. In speed the Spanish ships would, on their record, exceed all the American ships except the Brooklyn, but owing to various circumstances none of the ships involved, with the exception of the Oregon, approached their maximum speed capacity. In armament the American had more than double the strength of the Spanish fleet. Spain's largest guns were 11-inch, of which three ships had two each. The United States, on the other hand, had 13-inch guns, four each on the Indiana and Oregon, and of 12-inch guns, four on the Iowa and two on the Texas.

In guns 8-inch or larger, the Spanish fleet had eight, while the American fleet had 46. Of 5-inch or larger, the Spanish fleet had 28, to the American fleet's 72.

This overwhelming superiority of armament, together with the great superiority of American gunnery, explains many things that occurred on that day before the "Fourth."

The curved line of the American ships on guard was about eight miles long, and the distances of these ships from the entrance of Santiago harbor varied from two and one-half to four miles. The converted yacht Gloucester was on the extreme right, near shore, then came the Indiana, Oregon, Iowa, Texas, Brooklyn, Commodore Schley's flagship, and over toward the west shore the converted yacht Vixen. The men on the various ships had been called to quarters for inspection, when behind the hills the smoke of Cervera's fleet was seen moving toward the entrance of the harbor, and at 9:30 the lookout on the Iowa sighted the leading Spanish ship, the Maria Teresa, coming out.

The Iowa hoisted signal, "Enemy coming out," and fired a gun to call the attention of the rest of the fleet to the signal. Only a few minutes later the longed-for coming of the enemy was observed on the Brooklyn, and Commodore Schley signalled the fleet to clear for action.

Cervera's ships began firing as soon as they came in range, and as they appeared in the gap of the hills were wreathed in their own powder smoke. They had steam up, and were coming with a running start, which would naturally give them an advantage over a stationary fleet. Had the Yankee captains banked their fires, had they failed to keep up steam, had they grown so careless as the circumstances had seemed to warrant, they would have had a long stern chase ahead of them.

But the theory of the American navy, and the practice of the American navy, demands that its ships shall always be prepared. The enemy's attempt to escape was totally unexpected at that time; some of the ships had steam for only five or six knots, some of the ships were badly in need of docking, the Brooklyn had her forward engines uncoupled, and yet the five ships—the six ships, including the plucky little Gloucester—sprung toward the enemy with such a rush of speed, and with such a tempest of fire, that the battle was won in the first fifteen minutes. The Spaniards had the range of the American vessels from the entrance of the harbor, and the minute they came in sight they began firing at that range. The Yankees advanced to close quarters, and opened such a savage fire that many of the Spanish gunners never lowered their guns, but kept firing them at the former elevation, sending shells harmlessly over the American fleet. After the Spanish ships were burned, guns were found at the extreme elevation, which helped to explain why only one man was killed on the American ships.

The Infanta Maria Teresa, Admiral Cervera's flagship, was followed out of the harbor by the Viscaya, Cristobal Colon and Almirante Oquendo, each maintaining a regular distance of 800 yards and steaming at speed of about nine knots. They were followed at a distance of about 1200 yards by the torpedo boat destroyers Pluton and Furor.

Admiral Cervera led his fleet along the coast to the westward, and the Yankee ships, closing in for the attack, came in range of the batteries at Morro and Socapa, which were attempting by a vigorous fire to cover the escape. The four battleships headed almost straight for the escaping vessels, firing as they went, and ready if the opportunity offered to ram the Spaniards to death. But the Spaniards had too much initial speed and the battleships veered to the westward on a course parallel to the enemy's ships, which were between the fleet and the shore. This made it a chase in which Commodore Schley, on the Brooklyn, and Captain Philip, on the Texas, had the advantage from their positions on the west end of the blockading line.

But in the first evolution the torrent of American shells had done terrible work on the leading Spanish ship, the Maria Teresa. One of the first shots that struck her had cut the fire mains, and at 10:15 she surrendered and was beached in the surf at Nunanima, about six miles from the harbor.

The Oquendo, the fourth ship in the Spanish line, got out of the harbor just in time to receive the fire of the battleships at close range.

She was repeatedly on fire, her men were driven from the guns, and she was beached about half a mile from the Maria Teresa, at Juan Gonzales, about 10:30.

The Viscaya, the second in the line, was kept alive a little longer, probably by her vigorous response to the American fire. Captain Eulate fought his ship well, and at one time made a dash for the Brooklyn as if to ram her, but was driven back toward the shore by the force of the American fire. The Viscaya got by several of the battleships, but was being hammered by the Brooklyn, Texas and Iowa, and then by the Oregon, which came down the line like a race horse. At 10:50 she was seen to be on fire fore and aft, and after striking her colors she was beached at 11:15, near Acerraderos, about fifteen miles from Santiago.

The Colon, which was third in the Spanish line, escaped immediate destruction by keeping behind the other vessels. When the American attack developed into a chase the Colon, showing splendid speed, shot so far ahead of even the Brooklyn that she was practically out of range. By these tactics the Colon had escaped injury, and Captain Moreu hoped for speed enough to get away. The two nearest American ships were the Brooklyn and Texas, but Captain Clark of the Oregon was rapidly gaining on the pursuers and the pursued. Commodore Schley decided to steer the Brooklyn on a straight course for Cape Cruz, to head off the Colon, while the Oregon, which soon passed the Texas, could prevent Captain Moreu from doubling on his tracks.

The Colon gained a lead of six miles, but her spurt was finished, and she was gradually being overhauled by the Brooklyn and Oregon, and behind them by the Texas, Vixen and, finally, the New York, which had joined the chase.

About 1 o'clock the Oregon began firing at long range and dropped a couple of 13-inch shells close to the Spanish ship, and about the same time the Brooklyn began firing with her 8-inch guns, and dropped a shell ahead of the flying Spanish cruiser.

The jig was up, and at 1:15, a little more than three hours from the time she left the entrance, the last surviving vessel of Cervera's fleet hauled down the Spanish flag, and, firing a lee gun, went ashore at Rio Torquine, about fifty miles west of Santiago.

Captain Cook of the Brooklyn, Commodore Schley's chief of staff, went aboard to receive Captain Moreu's surrender, and while he was aboard Admiral Sampson came up in the New York and received his report.

At this time the Cristobal Colon was practically uninjured, but as she worked off into deep water the sea valves were broken by Spanish treachery, and it was found that she could not be kept afloat. When this fact was manifest on board the New York, Captain Chadwick put the flagship's stem against the Colon and pushed her bodily into shoal water, where she lay upon her beam ends.

The two torpedo boat destroyers, Pluton and Furor, were the last of the Spanish fleet to leave the harbor, and the first to meet destruction in an encounter with the Gloucester, which might almost be called a separate battle.

The Gloucester was the converted yacht Corsair armed with 6-pounder guns, and commanded by Lieutenant-Commander Wainwright, formerly of the battleship Maine. The position of the Gloucester before the fight was close inshore on the extreme east of the blockading line. When the Spanish fleet was sighted, the little, unprotected craft started into the fight at full speed, right under Morro's guns, and attacked the Oquendo as bravely as a battleship. The Oquendo evidently feared a torpedo, and turned her secondary battery on the Gloucester, but about this time Commander Wainwright sighted the Pluton and Furor, which seemed to be "his meat."

The torpedo boat destroyers were long, low vessels, of about 400 tons, and with a speed record of from 27 to 30 knots. Their armament was two 14-pounder, two 6-pounder quick-fire guns, and two 1-pounders. Either of these boats outclassed the Gloucester in speed and armament, but the Gloucester's gunners were the best marksmen.

The destroyers were supported by the guns of the Oquendo and Maria Teresa, and the shore batteries, while the Gloucester was supported by the secondary batteries of the Iowa, Indiana, Oregon, and later the New York. It was a deluge of shot on both sides, but underneath it the converted yacht and the crack destroyers were peppering away at each other for all they were worth, with the difference that the yacht was not being hit, while the destroyers were being punched out like nutmeg graters. It was quick death for the Pluton and Furor, which tried in vain to reach the lee of the Oquendo. Before they had been out of the harbor twenty minutes, they were out of the fight, the Pluton being sunk in deep water by a shell, probably from the Indiana, while the Furor was beached and sunk in the surf. Admiral Sampson, who was on the spot at the finish, pays a high tribute to the skillful handling and gallant fighting of the Gloucester, and says that her accu-

rate, deadly fire at close range was a considerable factor in their speedy destruction.

Fully two-thirds of the men on the destroyers were killed. The few survivors were rescued by the Gloucester, which then assisted in the work of picking up the crews of the other Spanish vessels. When Admiral Cervera, painfully wounded, had been compelled to jump overboard from his burning flagship, he was picked up and taken aboard the Gloucester and received with kindness and consideration. Commander Wainwright congratulated the Spanish Admiral on his bravery, and placed his own cabin and wardrobe at his disposal. The Gloucester deserved and has received high honors, and yet her escape from injury, or, indeed, destruction, was due only to signal good fortune. One well placed shell from the Spanish batteries or the Spanish fleet would have sent her to the bottom, and the risk she ran was greater than good naval tactics justified.

But the battle was not one in which tactics counted. The Spanish fleet was knocked out by main strength, and the commander of each ship did his share of the work in his own way.

When the Spanish ships showed their noses, Admiral Sampson, the commander-in-chief, had gone as far eastward as Altares, seven miles from the entrance to Santiago harbor. The New York was turned about and steamed for the escaping fleet, flying the signal: "Close in toward harbor entrance and attack vessels." This signal was a mere matter of form, and probably was not seen by the ships already hot upon the chase from six to twelve miles away.

Of his flagship, Admiral Sampson himself says: "She was not at any time within the range of the heavy Spanish ships, and her only part in the firing was to receive the undivided fire of the forts in passing the harbor entrance, and to fire a few shots at one of the destroyers, thought at the moment to be attempting to escape from the Gloucester."

Admiral Sampson's absence was entirely justified, in the light of his information and orders. The New York skirted the line of burning ships, and was ready to take part in the chase of the Colon, had anything happened to the Brooklyn or Oregon. The New York was a ship in reserve.

Commodore Schley, the acting commander-in-chief, did good work with his flagship, the Brooklyn, which was hit more times than any other American ship. Commodore Schley fought his ship as the other commanding officers fought theirs, and deserves equal credit with them.

Beyond his own ship, it does not appear that the acting commander-in-chief had any influence upon the result of the battle.

The Oregon did especially good service on account of the speed she was able to develop, and for the condition and handling of his ship Captain Clark is universally accorded great credit. Captain Evans, on the Iowa, and Captain Taylor, on the Indiana, pounded the enemy at close quarters, and fought with the grim determination of bull-dogs until ordered to cease, when they turned to and worked like beavers to rescue the surviving Spaniards. Both these Captains—"Fighting Bob," with his bluff ways, and Captain Taylor, with his polite manner—are recognized in the navy as joyful fighters, and they lived up to their reputation.

The Texas, a second-class battleship, made a new record for herself under the command of Captain Philip, and did her full share of the day's work. It is believed to have been a shell from the Texas that exploded one of the Vizcaya's torpedoes and put that dangerous ship out of commission. The Texas also showed good speed, and was gaining on the Colon in the last hour of the chase.

The converted yacht Vixen, on the extreme left of the blockading line, was almost directly in the course of the Spanish fleet, and had to get out of the way or be between two fires. Beyond a few shots with her 6-pounders at the Vizcaya, she did not take any active part in the battle.

The torpedo boat Ericsson, which in the beginning was off Altares with the New York, steamed back at full speed, and was able to do good work in rescuing the shipwrecked Spaniards and carrying dispatches.

The auxiliary cruiser Resolute was lying eastward of the Indiana at the beginning of the fight, and was utilized to take charge of about five hundred of the Spanish prisoners. The converted yacht Hist and the auxiliary cruiser Harvard were in the vicinity, and assisted in the work of caring for the Spanish prisoners.

In this battle Admiral Cervera lost the four Spanish cruisers and two torpedo boat destroyers, and about 600 men killed, while he and some 1,500 of his officers and men were taken prisoners.

On the American side one man, Yeoman George H. Ellis, of the Brooklyn, was killed, and only two or three were wounded. Several of the American ships were hit, but no material damage was done. As the Spanish ships lay burning upon the shore, frequent explosions oc-

curred on board of them, and although the work of rescue was attended with much danger, the American seamen freely risked their lives to save their defeated enemies. Many of the Spaniards who succeeded in swimming ashore were attacked by the Cuban allies, who shot at them in the water and inflicted machete wounds when they reached dry land. This cold-blooded slaughter was noticeable near the Vizcaya, and was checked by the men from the Iowa, Harvard and Ericsson. There were terrible sights to be seen on that hot July Sunday, for war is of necessity cruel, but the greatest dangers that the Yankee sailors faced were not in fighting, but in rescuing their Spanish brethren.

Many controversies, technical and otherwise, have grown out of this battle, but there can be no dispute when it is said that the victory depended upon two factors—men and guns. From the American guns it is estimated that 6,500 shots were fired, and about 190,000 pounds of metal were hurled against the enemy. And the men of the United States Navy, whether on the bridge, in the firerooms or behind the guns, did their whole duty.

Map showing Entrance to Santiago Harbor and Position of the Sunken Merrimac.

CHAPTER VIII.

SHAFTER'S SANTIAGO CAMPAIGN.

HOW THE FIFTH ARMY CORPS TOOK SANTIAGO DE CUBA, AFTER THE DESTRUCTION OF CERVERA'S FLEET—TORAL'S SURRENDER.

THE FIRST expedition of the land campaign against Santiago was a failure. This was the unsuccessful attempt in May, 1898, to land men and arms on Cuban soil from the Morgan Line steamer Gussie, the expedition being under command of Captain Joseph H. Dorst, of the Fourth Cavalry.

The first formidable movement, however, was not made until Major-General William R. Shafter was given command of the Fifth Army Corps, and ordered to sail for Cuba and attack the city of Santiago by land. The order was issued on May 30, as soon as it was learned that Cervera's fleet had been bottled up in Santiago Harbor, but owing to the delay in assembling the thirty transports needed to carry so large a force, the start was not made from Tampa until June 14, under convoy of a strong fleet sent by Acting Rear-Admiral Sampson.

The expedition thus dispatched to Cuba comprised 773 officers and 14,564 enlisted men. The infantry force consisted of the First, Second, Third, Sixth, Seventh, Eighth, Ninth, Tenth, Twelfth, Thirteenth, Sixteenth, Seventeenth, Twentieth, Twenty-first, Twenty-second and Twenty-fourth Regulars, the Seventy-first New York Volunteers and the Second Massachusetts Volunteers. The cavalry force consisted of two dismounted squadrons of four troops each from the First, Third, Sixth, Ninth and Tenth Regular Cavalry and two dismounted squadrons from the First Volunteer Cavalry, commanded by Colonel Leonard Wood, with Lieutenant-Colonel Theodore Roosevelt second in command.

This was the organization known as the "Roosevelt Rough Riders."

There was also one squadron of the Second Regular Cavalry, which took its horses with it. The artillery force consisted of light batteries E and K of the First Artillery, light batteries A and F of the Second Artillery and siege batteries G and H of the Fourth Artillery. There were also two companies of engineers and fifteen staff officers, beside some fifty newspaper correspondents and representatives of the armies and navies of Europe.

The voyage from Tampa was made almost without incident, save such slight mishaps as the loss of a water barge which one of the vessels had in tow, and on Monday, June 20th, the transports arrived off Santiago. Admiral Sampson, advised by swift scouts of the approach of the expedition, at once sent Captain Chadwick, of the flagship New York, to receive General Shafter. Captain Chadwick, acting under direction of his chief, advised General Shafter that the transports be kept out of sight of land until the point at which the troops were to go ashore had been finally selected. General Shafter promptly accepted this suggestion and the troopships were ordered to remain twenty miles out at sea.

Coincident with the arrival of the Fifth Corps off Santiago, General Calixto Garcia appeared at Accerraderos, some fifteen miles to the west, at the head of 4,000 Cubans, and arrangements were at once made for a conference between the insurgent leader, General Shafter and Admiral Sampson.

This conference took place in General Garcia's camp, on a hill near Accerraderos, on the afternoon of June 20, and when it was ended it had been decided that General Shafter should disembark his troops at Baiquiri, an iron pier used by a railroad company for unloading iron ore and a wharf in fairly good condition. Moreover, the beach at that point, while having considerable surf, was still not too rough to permit of the landing of horses and mules by swimming ashore. On June 21 plans for the landing were made out and transmitted to the several commanders, and early on the morning of June 22d Admiral Sampson made a feint of bombarding the batteries of Juragua to draw off the attention of the Spaniards while the New Orleans and some of the other vessels of the fleet shelled the hills around Baiquiri to rout any Spanish troops that might be in ambush there. Then the landing began and soon the sea was alive with flotillas of small boats, towed by launches, speeding for the dock at Baiquiri.

The Eighth Infantry was the first regiment to land. It was fol-

lowed by the First, Twenty-fifth, Twenty-second, Fifteenth, Seventeenth and Twelfth Regulars, the Second Massachusetts Volunteers and a part of the cavalry. General Shafter remained aboard the transport Seguranca directing the disembarkation, while Major-General Joseph Wheeler, commanding the cavalry division, conducted the movements of the troops ashore. As soon as landed the troops formed and moved inland, taking up positions along the banks of the Baiquiri River and extending to a distance of about three miles westward toward Santiago. A number of Cubans that had been landed the night previous at a point east of Baiquiri marched westward and entered the village from the land side at about the same time that the first American troops were landed. Under the conditions prevailing the landing was necessarily slow. No horses were landed on the first day, and less than 6,000 soldiers succeeded in getting ashore. The landing of troops continued on June 23d, and the advance, under Brigadier-General Henry W. Lawton, pushed on to Siboney, a coast village nine miles west of Baiquiri. Horses and mules were landed by swimming, and in the afternoon General Shafter began to land troops at Siboney, where the beach was much smoother than at Baiquiri. The landing of troops was practically concluded on June 24th, and early in the morning of that day the American advance reached La Guasimas, about four miles west of Siboney, where a skirmish had occurred the day before between Cubans and Spaniards, in which one Cuban was killed and eight wounded. Here the American advance for the first time encountered the enemy in force and here took place what has since been called the action of La Guasimas, which is described in another chapter.

BATTLE OF EL CANEY.

On June 25 the American advance occupied the high ridge of Savilla, six miles distant from but in full view of the City of Santiago. Lawton's division, the Second, was in advance; Wheeler's dismounted cavalry occupied a position some distance behind Lawton, and Brigadier-General J. Ford Kent's First Division lay in the rear of Wheeler. The advance continued on June 27, the outposts reaching points within three or four miles of Santiago. The light batteries as they came up passed through Kent's division into camp near Wheeler's division, and the mounted squadron of the Second Cavalry took up a position near the light battery. Reinforcements were landed June 28 and went into

camp near Siboney. On June 29 General Shafter went ashore and established his headquarters beside those of General Lawton.

On June 30 General Lawton, accompanied by his brigade commanders, made a careful reconnoissance of the country about El Caney, a village three miles northeast of Santiago, and after a council held later at General Shafter's headquarters orders were issued for an attack, to take place July 1, on El Caney. The object of the attack was, by a turning movement, swinging well to the American right and passing through the village of El Caney, to break the left flank of the enemy and thus reach the northern side of Santiago.

At early dawn of July 1 the troops of Lawton's division moved into the position they had been ordered to occupy. The light battery commanded by Captain Allyn K. Capron, whose son and namesake had fallen at La Guasimas, occupied a position overlooking the village of El Caney, 2,400 yards distant. The brigade of Brigadier-General Adna E. Chaffee took up a position east of the village, ready to carry the town as soon as it should have been bombarded by the artillery. The brigade of General William Ludlow moved to a position west of El Caney in order to cut off the Spaniards when they should be driven out and attempt to retreat to Santiago. The brigade of Colonel Evan Miles was held in reserve south of the village.

The position of the Spaniards at El Caney was a strong one. Their troops were located in a block-house or stone fort, in a stone church, wooden block-houses and well-protected trenches.

Capron's battery opened fire shortly before 7 o'clock at what appeared to be a column of cavalry, then fired a few shots at the block-houses and others at hedges where the infantry seemed to be located, and finally sent some shrapnel in the direction of the village. At about 11 o'clock the battery ceased firing. During all this time a continuous fire of musketry was kept up in all parts of the American lines, which were steadily drawing closer toward the village. Ludlow had moved forward from the west and the reserves under Miles had been brought up on the line, while early in the afternoon the independent brigade of Brigadier-General John C. Bates came up and went into the line, all closing in toward the village.

The brunt of the fighting fell at first on General Chaffee's brigade, composed of the Seventh, Twelfth and Seventeenth Infantry. General Chaffee seemed omnipresent. He was everywhere on the fighting line, by word and example urging his men forward. General Ludlow's task

was, with the troops of his brigade, to watch for and cut off the enemy's expected retreat toward Santiago, but early in the action he closed in upon the defenders of the village and his white sailor hat became a target for the enemy during the hours that he hugged the blockhouses on his flank of the well-defended village. The Americans had only 100 rounds for each man, and their officers, well out on the firing lines, watching the movements of the enemy with field glasses, saw to it that none of the shots was wasted.

Between 1 and 2 o'clock General Lawton ordered Capron to concentrate the fire of his battery upon the stone fort or blockhouse situated on the highest point in El Caney. This fort, built of brick, with walls about a foot thick, was the key point to the village. From it since early morning had come a galling and deadly fire, unobstructed save by a few bushes. The practice of the artillery against the fort was very effective, knocking great holes into it and rendering it untenable. Then the brigades of Chaffee, Bates and Miles made an assault upon the work and carried it. The charge was such as is made only by American soldiers, and when it was ended every Spaniard in the fort had been killed, wounded or captured. A prisoner stated after the battle that when the fighting ended there were only two men in the building who had escaped being struck by the American bullets.

There were a number of small blockhouses on the other side of the village from which a strong fire was kept up for some time after the stone fort had fallen. Word was sent to Capron to bring his battery forward and take these blockhouses, but by the time the battery arrived the fire had ceased. However, there was one blockhouse still held by the Spaniards and at this the battery fired four shots, completely wrecking it and killing or wounding most of its occupants. This ended the fighting and the Americans had complete possession of El Caney. Night fell with the troops who had fought so bravely and won so gloriously at El Caney marching back through the mud to support General Kent's division in the movement on San Juan.

HOW SAN JUAN HILL WAS TAKEN.

At dawn July 1st Wheeler's division of dismounted cavalry was camped on the eminence of El Poso, the name of a ruined plantation about three miles from Santiago. Kent's division lay near the road

back of El Poso. It had been arranged the previous night that, while Lawton turned northward to attack El Caney, there should be a general movement of the rest of the army toward Santiago. The cavalry division was to cross the Aguadores River and deploy to the right to the Santiago side of San Juan Hill, where the enemy was strongly intrenched, while the troops under General Kent deployed to the left of the Spanish position.

Soon after sunrise Grimes' battery went into position a little way west of the ruined buildings of El Poso, prepared gun pits and opened fire on San Juan Hill. Firing, promptly answered by the enemy with shrapnel, continued for an hour or more and then Wheeler's division was put in march toward Santiago. Under the direction of General Sumner, who held temporary command, owing to General Wheeler's illness, it crossed the Aguadores, turned to the right in the face of a galling volley fire from the enemy and went into position. Kent's division followed Wheeler's across the stream, advanced in close order under a severe enfilading fire, turned off to the left and formed for an attack.

Kent's advance, though skillfully directed, was not accomplished without heavy loss. The enemy's infantry fire, steadily increasing in intensity, came from all directions, not only from the front and the dense tropical thickets on the American flanks, but from sharpshooters, thickly posted in trees in the rear. While the Third Brigade, consisting of the Ninth, Thirteenth and Twenty-fourth Infantry, was deploying into position, its commander, Colonel Wikoff, was killed. Command of the brigade then devolved upon Lieutenant-Colonel Worth, who immediately fell, severely wounded, and then upon Lieutenant-Colonel Liscum. Five minutes later Liscum also fell, under the enemy's withering fire, and Lieutenant-Colonel Evers was left in command of the brigade.

Meanwhile, General Kent had sent an aid to hurry forward the Second Brigade, under Colonel Pearson, which was bringing up the rear. The Tenth and Second Infantry of this brigade, coming forward in good order, were directed to follow the Third Brigade, while the Twenty-first Infantry, the remaining regiment of the brigade, was sent to join the First Brigade, consisting of the Sixth and Sixteenth Infantry and the Seventy-first New York Volunteers, under Brigadier-General Hawkins, who had formed in the right of the division. These movements were successfully executed and Colonel Pearson, forming in the left of the division, passed over a knoll in his front, ascended

a high ridge beyond and drove the Spaniards back in the direction of their trenches.

Before this movement was executed the Third Brigade, connecting with Hawkins' on the right, had begun and carried out the most desperate and heroic charge of the war. The object of this charge was a blockhouse on the top of San Juan Hill, guarded by trenches and other defenses a mile and a half long. In arranging these defenses the Spaniards had made generous use of barbed wire fencing, which proved most effective as a stop to the American advance. It was used in two ways. Wire was stretched near the ground to trip up our men when on the run. Beyond them were fences in parallel lines, some too high to be vaulted over. The wires were placed so close together that they had to be separated before an ordinary wire-cutter could be forced between them. These defenses were laid in cultivated valleys and other open spaces which lay under the fire of the intrenchments. Every fence compelled a momentary halt on the part of our men, and during those moments they were exposed to a pitiless fire from all sides.

The most effective defenses of San Juan, however, were the steep sides of the hill and the rifle pits surmounting them. It seems almost incredible that the Americans could have scaled those heights under fire from rapid loading magazine guns. But they did. General Hawkins, placing himself between the two regiments leading his brigade, the Sixth and Sixteenth Infantry, urged and led them by voice and bugle call through a zone of most destructive fire and up the steep and difficult hill. The Thirteenth, Sixteenth and Twenty-fourth Infantry also shared in the charge. It was one thing to give orders in the jungle between El Poso and San Juan; it was another thing to make them known and get them executed. To many an officer who took part in the charge the memory of his experiences is vague and baffling. He only knows that he moved forward, forward, ever forward, through labyrinth and hail of bullets; that he lost sight of his brother officers and ultimately found himself on San Juan, with perhaps half his own company and some men of another. In the excitement of the moment each company commander was oblivious of what others were doing and yet there was unanimity of action.

The regiments that suffered the heaviest losses were the Thirteenth and Twenty-fourth. It was a detachment of seventy-five men from the latter regiment, under Captain Ducat and Lieutenant Lyon, that captured the blockhouse in the final charge. Of the seventy-five men

who started up the hill more than one-half were killed or wounded. The blockhouse stood at the top of the hill, facing the pathway leading up to it. Ducat's troopers, firing as they ran, rushed up the hill in a storm of bullets. Neither Ducat nor Lyon reached the blockhouse, both falling wounded on the slope; but their fall did not stay the onward rush of their men for a moment. The Spaniards, dismayed by the daring of the Americans, retreated from the blockhouse, leaving it to Ducat's men, and thus opening up the way for the carrying of the position by assault.

Coincident with the movements just described Wheeler's dismounted cavalry, with the Tenth and the Rough Riders in the van, had charged San Juan on the right and reached the crest of the hill at about the same time as did the infantry. Lieutenant-Colonel Roosevelt rode at the head of the Rough Riders, mounted high on horseback, and charging the rifle pits at a gallop. He wore on his sombrero a blue polka dot handkerchief, which, as he advanced, floated out straight behind his head, like a guidon. Afterward, the men of his regiment adopted a polka dot handkerchief as the badge of the Rough Riders.

Hawkins and Roosevelt were the two officers most conspicuous in the taking of San Juan, but it is folly to claim that any two men, or any one man, was more brave or daring, or showed greater courage in that slow, stubborn advance than did any of the others. Some one asked an officer if he had any difficulty in making his men follow him. "No," he answered, "I had some difficulty in keeping up with them. Indeed, we had as little to do as the referee at a prize fight. We called 'Time' and the men did the fighting."

THE SURRENDER OF SANTIAGO.

The night of July 1st found the Americans holding both San Juan and El Caney, and General Shafter was able to telegraph that he had carried all the outworks and was within three-quarters of a mile of the city. The enemy's lines were broken in the principal places, but he yielded no more than was forced from him, and fighting was resumed on July 2d. Close of that day found our left flank resting on the bay and our lines drawn around the city within easy gun fire. Fears were entertained that the enemy would evacuate the place, and the right flank was pushed around to the north and eventually to the northwest of the city.

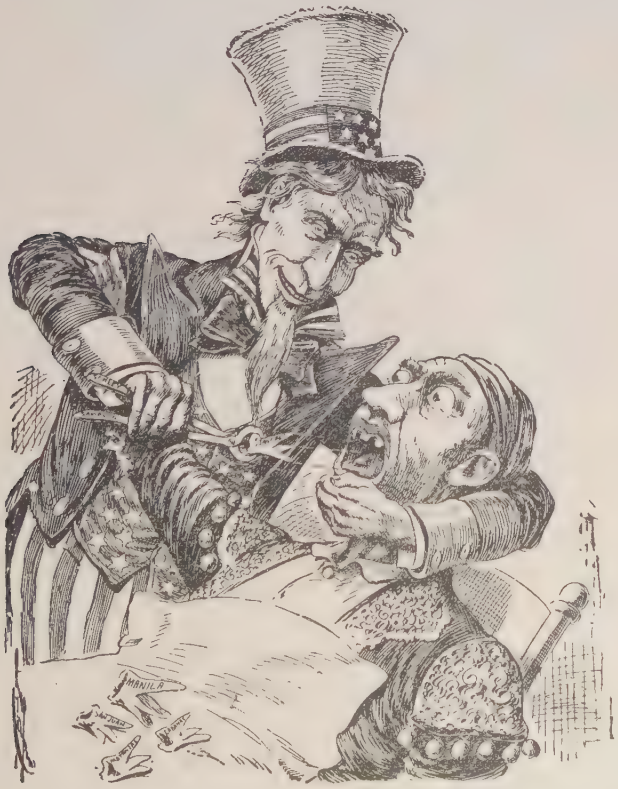
These operations extended the lines so much that the need of more troops to hold them was instantly felt. Accordingly, General Shafter telegraphed for reinforcements, which were hurried forward—6,000 men reaching him within eight days after the battle. With these the city was completely invested from Caimanes on the northwest to the bay south of Santiago. Siege guns were brought up and placed in position, reinforcements of field artillery arrived, entrenchments were thrown up and every preparation made for a quick reduction of the place by bombardment. On Sunday, July 3d, Admiral Cervera tried to run past the American fleet, but lost all his vessels, and was taken prisoner, and on the same day General Shafter demanded the surrender of Santiago, on pain of bombardment.

This demand was refused by General Jose Toral, commanding in the city, and the foreign consuls in Santiago then requested that the bombardment should be delayed until the foreign residents had been removed to places of safety, in and beyond the American lines. This request was granted and a truce was allowed, which continued until July 9, when General Shafter renewed his demand for surrender, again threatening to bombard. General Toral offered to evacuate the city provided he were allowed to do so with men and arms. This was refused by General Shafter, and on July 11, the army and fleet opened fire on the city. Some little damage was done by the heavy shots of the warships, but the Spaniards kept well within their trenches, and the only casualties were three Americans wounded.

General Miles arrived in front of Santiago on July 12th, having left Tampa four days before, and as a result of his urging, a meeting was held between the lines, at which General Toral and Generals Shafter and Wheeler discussed the terms of capitulation. Further negotiations followed and on July 16th these terms were reached: Twenty thousand refugees to go back to Santiago; an American infantry patrol on roads surrounding the city; our hospital corps to give attention to sick and wounded Spanish soldiers; all Spanish troops in the province of Santiago, except 10,000 at Holguin, to come to the city to surrender; the guns and defenses of Santiago to be turned over to the Americans in good condition; Spanish troops to surrender their arms; all Spaniards to be conveyed to Spain and to take portable church property, and Spaniards to co-operate with Americans in destroying harbor mines.

This surrender covered one-tenth of the island of Cuba and the

surrender of more than 20,000 Spanish troops. It was formally completed on July 17th and the American troops took possession of Santiago. "Upon coming into the city," telegraphed General Shafter, "I discovered a perfect entanglement of defenses. Fighting as the Spaniards did the first day, it would have cost 5,000 lives to have taken it." As it was, this important victory, with its substantial fruits of conquest, was won by a loss of 1,593 men killed, wounded and missing. Lawton, in the severe fighting around El Caney, lost 410 men, Kent lost 859 men in the still more severe assault on San Juan and the other conflicts of the center. The cavalry lost 285 men, many of whom fell at San Juan. In a military sense, our victory had not been dearly bought. Combined with the loss of the Spanish fleet, it had led to an important capitulation, and, as events proved, materially hastened the end of the war.



Ha! ha! "Taking Santiago didn't hurt a bit," Spain says.—Los Angeles Times.

CHAPTER IX.

GENERAL SHAFTER'S OWN STORY OF SANTIAGO.

By Wm. R. Shafter

Major-General.

IT WAS NOT UNTIL nearly two weeks after the army landed that it was possible to place on shore three days' supplies in excess of those required for the daily consumption. On June 30th I reconnoitered the country about Santiago and made my plan of attack. From a high hill, from which the city was in plain view, I could see the San Juan Hill and the country about El Caney. The roads were very poor, and indeed little better than bridle paths until the San Juan River and El Caney were reached.

Lawton's division, assisted by Capron's light battery, was ordered to move out during the afternoon toward El Caney, to begin the attack there early the next morning. After carrying El Caney, Lawton was to move by the Caney road toward Santiago and take position on the right of the line. Wheeler's division of dismounted cavalry and Kent's division of infantry were directed on the Santiago road, the head of the column resting near El Poso, toward which heights Grimes' battery moved on the afternoon of the 30th, with orders to take position there early on the next morning, and at the proper time prepare the way for the advance of Wheeler and Kent on San Juan Hill. The attack at this point was to be delayed until Lawton's guns were heard at El Caney and until his infantry fire showed he had become well engaged.

The preparations were far from what I desired them to be, but we were in a sickly climate; our supplies had to be brought forward by a narrow wagon road, which the rains might at any time render impassable; fear was also entertained that a storm might drive the ves-

sels containing our stores to sea, thus separating us from our base of supplies.

Lastly, it was reported that General Pando, with 8,000 re-enforcements for the enemy, was en route from Manzanillo and might be expected in a few days. Under these conditions I determined to give battle without delay.

Early on the morning of July 1st Lawton was in position around El Caney, Chaffee's brigade on the right, across the Guantanamo road; Miles' brigade in the center, and Ludlow's on the left. The duty of cutting off the enemy's retreat along the Santiago road was assigned to the latter brigade.

The artillery opened on the town at 6:15 A. M. The battle here soon became general, and was hotly contested. The enemy's position was naturally strong and was rendered more so by blockhouses, a stone fort and intrenchments cut in solid rock and the loopholing of a solidly built stone church. The opposition offered by the enemy was greater than had been anticipated and prevented Lawton from joining the right of the main line during the day, as had been intended.

After the battle had continued for some time Bates' brigade of two regiments reached my headquarters from Siboney. I directed him to move near El Caney, to give assistance, if necessary. He did so and was put in position between Miles and Chaffee. The battle continued with varying intensity during most of the day and until the place was carried by assault about 4:30 P. M. As the Spaniards endeavored to retreat along the Santiago road Ludlow's position enabled him to do very effective work and practically to cut off all retreat in that direction.

After the battle at El Caney was well opened and the sound of the small arm fire caused us to believe that Lawton was driving the enemy before him, I directed Grimes' battery to open fire from the heights of El Poso on the San Juan blockhouse, which could be seen situated in the enemy's intrenchments extending along the crest of San Juan Hill. This fire was effective and the enemy could be seen running away from the vicinity of the blockhouse.

The artillery fire from El Poso was soon returned by the enemy's artillery. They evidently had the range of this hill and their first shells killed and wounded several men. As the Spaniards used smokeless powder it was very difficult to locate the position of their pieces, while, on the contrary, the smoke caused by our black powder plainly indicated the position of our battery.

At this time the cavalry, under General Sumner, which was lying concealed in the general vicinity of El Poso, was ordered forward, with directions to cross the San Juan River and deploy to the right on the Santiago side, while Kent's division was to follow closely in its rear and deploy to the left. These troops moved forward in compliance with orders, but the road was so narrow as to render it impracticable to retain the column-of-fours formation at all points, while the undergrowth on either side was so dense as to preclude the possibility of deploying skirmishers. It naturally resulted that the progress made was slow, and the long-range rifles of the enemy's infantry killed and wounded a number of our men while marching along this road, and before there was any opportunity to return this fire. At this time Generals Kent and Sumner were ordered to push forward with all possible haste and place their troops in position to engage the enemy. General Kent, with this end in view, forced the head of his column alongside of the cavalry column as far as the narrow trail permitted, and thus hurried his arrival at the San Juan and the formation beyond that stream.

A few hundred yards before reaching the San Juan the road forks, a fact that was discovered by Lieutenant-Colonel Derby of my staff, who had approached well to the front in a war balloon. This information he furnished to the troops, resulting in Sumner moving on the right-hand road, while Kent was enabled to utilize the road to the left.

General Wheeler, the permanent commander of the cavalry division, who had been ill, came forward during the morning and later returned to duty and rendered most gallant and efficient service during the remainder of the day.

After crossing the stream, the cavalry moved to the right with a view of connecting with Lawton's left when he could come up, and with their left resting near the Santiago road. In the meantime, Kent's division, with the exception of two regiments of Hawkins' brigade, being thus uncovered, moved rapidly to the front from the forks previously mentioned, in the road, utilizing both trails, but more especially the one to the left, and, crossing the creek, formed for attack in the front of San Juan Hill. During this formation the Second brigade suffered severely. While personally superintending this movement, its gallant commander, Colonel Wikoff, was killed. The command of the brigade then devolved upon Lieutenant-Colonel Worth, Thirteenth Infantry, who was soon severely wounded, and next upon Lieutenant-Colonel Lis-

cum, Twenty-fourth Infantry, who, five minutes later, also fell under the terrible fire of the enemy, and the command of the brigade then devolved upon Lieutenant-Colonel Ewers, Ninth Infantry.

While the formation just described was taking place, Kent took measures to hurry forward his rear brigade. The Tenth and Second Infantry were ordered to follow Wikoff's brigade, while the Twenty-first was sent on the right hand road to support the First Brigade, under General Hawkins, who had crossed the stream and formed on the right of the division. The Second and Tenth Infantry, Colonel E. P. Pearson commanding, moved forward in good order on the left of the division, passed over a green knoll and drove the enemy back toward his trenches.

After completing the formation under a destructive fire and advancing a short distance, both divisions found in their front a wide bottom in which had been placed a barbed wire entanglement, and beyond which there was a high hill, along the crest of which the enemy was strongly posted. Nothing daunted, these gallant men pushed on to drive the enemy from this chosen position, both divisions losing heavily. In this assault Colonel Hamilton and Lieutenants Smith and Shipp were killed, and Colonel Carroll, Lieutenants Thayer and Myer, all in the cavalry, were wounded.

Great credit is due to Brigadier-General H. S. Hawkins, who, placing himself between his regiments, urged them on by voice and bugle calls to the attack so brilliantly executed.

In this fierce encounter words fail to do justice to the gallant regimental commanders and heroic men, for while the Generals indicated the formations and the points of attack, it was after all the intrepid bravery of officers and men that planted our colors on the crest of San Juan Hill and drove the enemy from his trenches and blockhouses, thus gaining a position which sealed the fate of Santiago.

In this action on this part of the field most efficient service was rendered by Lieutenant John H. Parker, Thirteenth Infantry, and the Gatling gun detachment under his command. The fighting continued at intervals until nightfall, but our men held resolutely to the positions gained at the cost of so much blood and toil.

I am greatly indebted to General Wheeler, who, as previously stated, returned from the sick list to duty during the afternoon. His cheerfulness and aggressiveness made itself felt on this part of the

battlefield and the information he furnished to me at various stages of the battle proved to be most useful.

My own health was impaired by overexertion in the sun and intense heat of the day before, which prevented me from participating as actively in the battle as I desired; but from a high hill near my headquarters I had a general view of the battlefield, extending from El Caney on the right to the left of our lines on San Juan Hill.

General Duffield, with the Thirty-third Michigan, attacked Aguadores, as ordered, but was unable to accomplish more than to detain the Spaniards in that vicinity. On the night of July 1st I ordered General Duffield at Siboney to send forward the Thirty-fourth Michigan and the Ninth Massachusetts, both of which had just arrived from the United States. These regiments reached the front the next morning.

All day on the 2d the battle raged with more or less fury, but such of our troops as were in position at daylight held their ground and Lawton gained a strong and commanding position on the right. About 10 P. M. the enemy made a vigorous assault to break through my lines, but he was repulsed at all points.

FINAL VICTORY WON.

On the morning of the 3d the battle was renewed, but the enemy seemed to have expended his energy in the assault of the previous night and the firing along the lines was desultory until stopped by my sending a letter within the Spanish lines demanding the surrender of the city.

I was of the opinion that the Spaniards would surrender if given a little time, and I thought this result would be hastened if the men of their army could be made to understand they would be well treated as prisoners of war. Acting upon this presumption, I determined to offer to return all the wounded Spanish officers at El Caney who were able to bear transportation and who were willing to give their paroles not to serve against the forces of the United States until regularly exchanged. This offer was made and accepted. These officers, as well as several of the wounded Spanish privates, twenty-seven in all, were sent to their lines under the escort of some of our mounted cavalry. Our troops were received with honors, and I have every reason to believe the return of the Spanish prisoners produced a good impression on their comrades.

FIGHTING IS ENDED.

The cessation of firing about noon on the 3d practically terminated the battle of Santiago; all that occurred after this time may properly be treated under the head of the siege which followed. After deducting the detachments retained at Siboney and Baquiri to render those depots secure from attack, organizations held to protect our flanks, others acting as escorts and guards to light batteries, the members of the hospital corps, guards left in charge of blanket rolls which the intense heat caused the men to cast aside before entering battle, orderlies, etc., it is doubtful if we had more than 12,000 men on the firing line on July 1st, when the battle was fiercest and when the important and strong positions of El Caney and San Juan were captured.

A few Cubans assisted in the attack at El Caney and fought valiantly, but their numbers were too small materially to change the strength, as indicated above. The enemy confronted us with numbers about equal to our own; they fought obstinately in strong and intrenched positions, and the results obtained clearly indicate the intrepid gallantry of the company officers and men, and the benefits derived from the careful training and instruction given in the company in recent years in rifle practice and other battle exercises. Our losses in these battles were twenty-two officers and 208 men killed, and eighty-one officers and 1,203 men wounded; missing, seventy-nine. The missing, with few exceptions, reported later—eleven.

General Garcia, with between 4,000 and 5,000 Cubans, was intrusted with the duty of watching for and intercepting the re-enforcements expected. This, however, he failed to do, and Escario passed into the city on my extreme right and near the bay.

After the destruction of Cervera's fleet I informed Admiral Sampson that if he would force his way into the harbor the city would surrender without any further sacrifice of life. Commodore Watson replied that Admiral Sampson was temporarily absent, but that in his (Watson's) opinion the navy should not enter the harbor. The strength of the enemy's position was such I did not wish to assault if it could be avoided. An examination of the enemy's works, made after the surrender, fully justifies the wisdom of the course adopted. The intrenchments could only have been carried with very great loss of life.

The engagement was reopened on the 10th, and on the 11th the

surrender of the city was again demanded. By this date the sickness in the army was increasing very rapidly, as a result of exposure in the trenches to the intense heat of the sun and the heavy rains. Moreover, the dews in Cuba are almost equal to rains. The weakness of the troops was becoming so apparent I was anxious to bring the siege to an end, but in common with most of the officers of the army I did not think an assault would be justifiable, especially as the enemy seemed to be acting in good faith in the preliminary propositions to surrender. * * * July 12th I informed the Spanish commander that Major-General Miles, Commander-in-Chief of the American Army, had just arrived in my camp, and requested him to grant us a personal interview on the following day. He replied he would be pleased to meet us. The interview took place on the 13th, and I informed him his surrender only could be considered, and that as he was without hope of escape he had no right to continue the fight.

On July 14th General Toral agreed to surrender, and on July 16th I notified the Adjutant-General at Washington of the terms of capitulation.

On July 17th the occupation of Santiago was announced in the following telegram:

"Santiago de Cuba, July 17th.

"Adjutant-General U. S. A., Washington:

"I have the honor to announce that the American flag has been this instant, 12 o'clock noon, hoisted over the house of the civil government in the city of Santiago. An immense concourse of people present. A squadron of cavalry and a regiment of infantry presenting arms and band playing national airs. Light battery fired salute twenty-one guns. Perfect order is being maintained by municipal government. Distress is very great, but little sickness in town. Scarcely any yellow fever. A small gunboat and about two hundred seamen left by Cervera have surrendered to me. Obstructions are being removed from the mouth of harbor. Upon coming into the city I discovered a perfect entanglement of defence. Fighting as the Spaniards did the first day it would have cost 5,000 lives to have taken it. Battalion of Spanish troops depositing arms since daylight in armory, over which I have a guard. General Toral formally surrendered the Plaza and all stores at 9 A. M.

"W. R. SHAFTER, Major-General."

Before closing I wish to dwell upon the natural obstacles I had to encounter and which no foresight could have overcome or obviated.

The rocky and precipitous coast afforded no sheltered landing places, the roads were mere bridle paths, the effect of the tropical sun and rains upon unacclimated troops was deadly, and a dread of strange and unknown diseases had its effect on the army. At Baquiri the landing of the troops and stores was made at a small wooden wharf, which the Spaniards tried to burn, but unsuccessfully, and the animals were pushed into the water and guided to a sandy beach about 200 yards in extent. At Siboney the landing was made on the beach and at a small wharf erected by the engineers.

I had neither the time nor the men to spare to construct permanent wharves. In spite of the fact that I had nearly 1,000 men continuously at work on the roads, they were at times impassable for wagons. The San Juan and Aguadores Rivers would often suddenly rise so as to prevent the passage of wagons, and then the eight pack trains with the command had to be depended upon for the victualing of my army, as well as the 20,000 refugees who could not in the interests of humanity be left to starve while we had rations. Often for days nothing could be moved except on pack trains. After the great physical strain and exposure of July 1st and 2d, the malarial and other fevers began to rapidly advance throughout the command, and on July 4th the yellow fever appeared at Siboney. Though efforts were made to keep this fact from the army, it soon became known.

The supply of quartermaster and commissary stores during the campaign was abundant, and notwithstanding the difficulties in landing and transporting the rations the troops on the firing line were at all times supplied with its coarser components, namely, of bread, meat, sugar and coffee. There was no lack of transportation, for at no time up to the surrender could all the wagons I had be used.

In reference to the sick and wounded I have to say that they received every attention that it was possible to give them. The medical officers without exception worked night and day to alleviate the suffering, which was no greater than invariably accompanies a campaign. It would have been better if we had had more ambulances, but as many were taken as was thought necessary, judging from previous campaigns.

The discipline of the command was superb, and I wish to invite attention to the fact that not an officer was brought to trial by court-martial, and, as far as I know, no enlisted man. This speaks volumes for an army of this size and in a campaign of such duration.

In conclusion, I desire to express to the members of my staff my

thanks for their efficient performance of all the duties required of them, and the good judgment and bravery displayed on all occasions when demanded.

Wm. R. Shafter

Major-General.

A UNIQUE WAR DOCUMENT.

General Shafter, on August 22d, cabled to Washington a document entirely unique in the annals of warfare. It is in the form of a congratulatory farewell address issued to the soldiers of the American Army by Pedro Lopez de Castillo, a private Spanish soldier, on behalf of 11,000 Spanish soldiers. No similar document perhaps was ever before issued to a victorious army by a vanquished enemy.

The President was much impressed by the address, and after reading it carefully authorized its publication.

TEXT OF THE ADDRESS.

Following is the text of the address as cabled by General Shafter:

"SANTIAGO, August 22d.—H. C. Corbin, Adjutant-General U. S. Army, Washington: The following letter has just been received from the soldiers now embarking for Spain:

"'To MAJOR-GENERAL SHAFTER, Commanding the American Army in Cuba, Sir: The Spanish soldiers who capitulated in this place on the 16th of July last, recognizing your high and just position, pray that through you, all the courageous and noble soldiers under your command may receive our good wishes and farewell, which we send them on embarking for our beloved Spain. For this favor, which we have no doubt you will grant, you will gain the everlasting gratitude and consideration of 11,000 Spanish soldiers who are your most humble servants. PEDRO LOPEZ DE CASTILLO,

"'Private of Infantry.'

"Also the following letter addressed to the soldiers of the American army:

"'Soldiers of the American Army: We would not be fulfilling

our duty as well-born men, in whose breasts there live gratitude and courtesy, should we embark for our beloved Spain without sending to you our most cordial and good wishes and farewell. We fought you with ardor, with all our strength, endeavoring to gain the victory, but without the slightest rancor or hate toward the American nation. We have been vanquished by you (so our Generals and chiefs judged in signing the capitulation), but our surrender and the bloody battles preceding it have left in our hearts no place for resentment against the men who fought us nobly and valiantly. You fought and acted in compliance with the same call of duty as we, for we all but represent the power of our respective states.

"'You fought us as men, face to face, and with great courage, as before stated, a quality which we had not met with during the three years we have carried on this war against a people without religion, without morals, without conscience, and of doubtful origin, who could not confront the enemy, but, hidden, shot their noble victims from ambush and then immediately fled. This was the kind of warfare we had to sustain in this unfortunate land. You have complied exactly with all the laws and usages of war as recognized by the armies of the most civilized nations of the world; have given honorable burial to the dead of the vanquished; have cured their wounded with great humanity; have respected and cared for your prisoners and their comfort, and, lastly, to us, whose condition was terrible, you have given freely of food, of your stock of medicines, and you have honored us with distinction and courtesy, for after the fighting the two armies mingled with the utmost harmony.

"'With this high sentiment of appreciation from us all, there remains but to express our farewell, and with the greatest sincerity we wish you all happiness and health in this land, which will no longer belong to our dear Spain, but will be yours, who have conquered it by force and watered it with your blood, as your conscience called for, under the demand of civilization and humanity, but the descendants of the Congo and of Guinea, mingled with the blood of unscrupulous Spaniards and of traitors and of adventurers, these people are not able to exercise or enjoy their liberty, for they will find it a burden to comply with the laws which govern civilized communities.

"'From 11,000 Spanish soldiers.

"'PEDRO LOPEZ DE CASTILLO,

"'Soldier of Infantry, Santiago de Cuba, August 21, 1898.'"

CHAPTER X.

STATISTICS APPLIED TO THE STRAIN OF BATTLE.

CLOSE statistical calculation of the amount of metal used in the civil war between our States led to the belief that though the casualties on both sides were appalling, yet it had taken about a ton of lead to kill each man. The same sort of figuring of the missiles used and their results in the battles among the hills of Santiago would undoubtedly show that the amount of ammunition expended for each man killed was far in excess of the old estimate.

A careful calculator has put it in a new light, figuring that the strain required in firing 100 rounds of Krag-Jorgensen cartridges is equal to a day's work with pick and shovel. This is undoubtedly far-fetched, but must be considered in an estimate of the terrific labors of the United States soldiers fighting at Santiago, Porto Rico and in the Philippines.

Shafter's men were not only under the excitement of battle, when one saw his chum fall back torn with a Mauser and could not but feel that his turn was close at hand, but in digging the trenches they were nauseated by the odor of the decaying vegetation of the tropical soil, and were alternately soaked in cloud-bursts, followed by intense heat and cold, until the strain was far beyond what one who was not there can imagine or will readily believe.

The problem of keeping the troops supplied with ammunition, when it was being used as the small boy does in the early part of the Fourth of July, was a tremendous one and necessitated the expenditure of every effort to get it to the front in preference to rations or anything else. The soldiers could eat later. For the time being they must fight, and ammunition was the essential rather than food. This fact in itself led to frightful hardships, which, added to the horrors of the "rainy season," made the work greater than ordinary soldiers could stand, but the American troops were not ordinary. They amazed the veteran observers of Europe, who have since gone home properly informed and

well-disposed to our nation. One of the wonderful things to them, which they have not ceased talking about, is that the percentage of loss, including those who died in the camps and on the field, the loss of Americans officers and men out of a total of 274,717 was but 2,910, or the small percentage of 1.59-1,000.

A German officer, who had watched the fighting with the greatest interest, while loud in his praise of the troops, was especially impressed with the wonderful nerve of the army packers and the splendid staying qualities of the army mule. The men brought the ammunition cases right up to the trenches and were in even greater danger than the soldiers. Throughout the fighting they were as cool as expressmen delivering parcels at fashionable residences, and though a number of them were struck, yet the rest were in no way disturbed. There was no glory in it for them. They were simply doing their duty.

The soldier of the Kaiser went home impressed with the soldiers and packers and with very serious ideas as to the value of the army mule. He had seen and estimated his eccentricities, but he had also seen and appreciated the mule's capacity as a pack animal and in the wagon train, his ability to do heavy work with little or nothing to eat or drink. The likelihood is that the Southern mule will see service on the Continent. Whether he will appreciate his trip abroad or be ordinarily docile in foreign lands remains to be seen, for there is a belief in this country that it takes a Southern negro, or an easy-going Southwesterner, to get the best work out of a mule.

Uncle Sam's string of cannon crackers.—Minneapolis Journal.

CHAPTER XI.

GRADUATED FOR THE GRAVE AND GLORY.

THE SPLENDID TRAINING of West Point was abundantly proven on the battlefields of Cuba, Porto Rico and the Philippines. The martial spirit born in the nation's great military school made splendid soldiers of the officers, whose personal courage was backed and made irresistible by their learning in the arts of warfare. In few wars has the percentage in loss of officers been so great, for in many of the engagements it was necessary that they should be outside the trenches to properly direct the fire of the men, note results and the enemy's movements and by their own exposure and courage inspire the soldiers to the utmost bravery. Then, too, the Spanish sharpshooters made a point of directing their fire against the officers. In the charges the bearers of Government commissions, the graduates of West Point, led the way and many of them fell to add their names to the glorious list of their Alma Mater, that tells of her sons who died that their country might live.

Lieutenant Edward N. Benchley was one of the class hurriedly graduated in the spring of the declaration of hostilities, that the lack of regular officers might be filled. About the time he would have graduated he was in a soldier's grave. It is gratifying to know that the memory of this gallant soldier is to be honored in his native city of Worcester, Massachusetts, by a bust which is to occupy a conspicuous place in one of the public buildings of Worcester. The bust is an excellent likeness and reflects great credit upon its sculptor, Timothy J. McAuliffe, of Worcester.

Lieutenant Benchley was graduated from West Point last spring and immediately joined Company E, Sixth Infantry. He won the confidence of his superior officers, and when struck by the fatal bullet was engaged upon an important mission, which carried him where the fire was most relentless. His conduct was heroic; if he had lived he would have been brevetted for gallantry in action.

CHAPTER XII.

INCIDENTS OF THE BLOCKADE.

LOCKADING was not as stupid a form of duty as might be carelessly supposed. There were thrilling moments on the ships assigned to see that the Spaniards in Cuba did not receive aid from the outside. There was in addition the chance of large pecuniary reward, not forgotten by the lookout, and in the uncertainty as to the whereabouts of the Spanish navy with its "phantom" fleets there was excitement enough to render blockade duty most interesting.

As an instance, on August 2d, the United States steamship Bancroft sighted a schooner inside a bay, about four miles distant; lowered the steam launch with a 1-pounder gun and armed crew, in charge of Ensign W. W. Phelps, who captured and brought her out. She was quite small and named the Nipe. Another vessel was seen farther in and the Maple boat pursued her, but was unable to follow on account of darkness, though Lieutenant Southerland ran boldly, until he was in fourteen feet of water. During the night heavy storms were experienced and the Bancroft dragged off the shoal ledge.

The following morning, the sea being too rough to sound out a deep passage in, the Bancroft, with prize in tow and Eagle in company, proceeded to the westward to communicate with a Cuban camp, and when opposite to Cortes Bay sent her prize into anchorage with two armed men, so that the Nipe should not have information of the location of the Cubans; but from later information as to the methods of campaigning between Spaniards in the towns and the Cubans outside, this was found to have been an unnecessary precaution. On arriving off the Cuban camp the sea was too heavy to communicate, so in company with the Maple, which had come out to meet the Bancroft, she proceeded into Cortes Bay for a conference.

On approaching anchorage the commander was surprised to see his prize well inshore flying Spanish colors, and two boats approaching her, and a few minutes later two men, John Nevis, gunner's mate, third class, and Valdemar Holmgren, seaman, were seen at the stern of

the vessel and the Spaniards forward. The Maple, which drew but eight feet of water, went to the rescue. On her return it was found that the two Americans had captured six prisoners, the Spanish flag having been used to draw them within range of their rifles.

This incident, cabled to Spain, struck the Castilians as being outrageous. Indeed, it was the constant protest of the Spaniards that the Americans did not fight "fair." They had evidently never heard that "all is fair in love and war." The outraged feelings of the Spaniards was expressed in the caricatures of the Spanish papers. They were in a state of mind and had to portray their enemy as a pig, a form of sarcasm they thought cutting.

READY TO FIGHT ANY AND ALL.

The national bravery of the American seaman and willingness to tackle a battleship with even so frail a vessel as a tug was well shown on more than one occasion. The lighthouse tender Mangrove, selected as useful in cable-cutting, was lying off Havana on April 15th. There was nothing formidable about her with the exception of her crew, under Lieutenant-Commander W. H. Everett. It was an inky night, when suddenly there appeared the lights of a steamer. No one knew what she might be, but that made no difference. She might prove the much-looked for Panama, laden with ammunition, provisions and Spaniards. She had sailed from New York just before the war broke out. Every vessel in the navy had been looking for her.

The little Mangrove fired twice from her two 6-pounders across the stranger's bow, bringing her to. She proved to be the Panama, as had been hoped, and Ensign Dayton, having borrowed a pistol from one of the crew, boarded her. The prize did not prove to be anywhere near the value imagined and sold for but $41,000. This was divided with the Indiana, she having supplied a prize crew.

The cruiser Nashville, one of the old pattern of the new navy, light armored and moderately armed and of no especial speed, was at her assigned station in the blockade, leisurely patrolling her beat, when out of the early morning haze a big warship suddenly loomed up on the horizon. She carried no flag and the men of the Nashville were certain that she must be a Spaniard attempting to run the blockade. The disparity in power of the boats did not bother officers or crew. They were far enough away to have swung about and chased for the powerful

and swift New York. Instead of that, under full steam and with every man at his post, ammunition ready and gunners eagerly looking out along the sights, the Nashville headed for the stranger.

She proved to be the Talbot, a British cruiser, four times as big as the Yankee, and when the Queen's men saw the little American making for them with her battleflags ablaze in the first rays of the sun, they ran up the English flag and then cheered their plucky assailants, who responded with equal heartiness, though the chorus came from fewer throats. One of the British tars, in commenting on the nerve of the Yankees, remarked to his shipmate: "Bloyme me eyes! She would have had a David's try at Goliath if she met H. M. S. Resolute, flying Spanish colors," while a gunner on the Nashville endangered his soul in expressing his disappointment that so fine a boat had not proven to be a Spaniard. Such was the American man aboard tug boat, yacht, cruiser or battleship.

Lieutenant-Commander Adolph Marix, with the converted yacht Scorpion, afterward met the Talbot. Though the Scorpion carried but four 5-inch guns she ran at the Britisher just as the Nashville had done. Officers and men of the Talbot have been profuse in their praise of the Americans, for they have measured what sort of men they are.

Another and more thrilling incident was when the tug Osceola, carrying a 6-pounder and machine gun, was conveying the transport Florida on the northern coast of Cuba. The Florida was loaded with ammunition for the Cubans and a number of the insurgents. It was one of those beautiful clear mornings, when the tropical seas are purple and the line of the horizon is as markedly distinct as a black line on white paper. It was where sky met ocean that two puffs of smoke rapidly growing into large jet-black columns were seen. Lieutenant J. L. Purcell was in command of the little Osceola and he showed the courage of a Cushing. It was evident in a moment that the stranger was a powerful cruiser and of a type which as Purcell puts it, "I had never seen before and took for an enemy." He signalled the Florida to make a run for the beach to unload ammunition, arms and men, while he would go back, stand off and give battle. As well might a sparrow attack an eagle as the Osceola fight this big warship with her long guns fairly bristling from her sides and turrets. Purcell was a graduate of Annapolis and knew that his task was almost absurdly hopeless, but it was his duty to successfully carry out the purpose of the expedition and there was but one thing to do. As he attempted to

divert the attention of the enemy from the transport, raising to the masthead the largest flag, the crew recognized their Captain's heroic endeavor and there was not one that quailed, or objected to the coming foolhardy fight. They took their positions, remarking to one another: "Purcell is a daisy—hot stuff," and other expressions of admiration. Indeed, they forgot in their approval of him that they were just as brave and just as willing. To their surprise the Stars and Stripes went up on the stranger. She proved to be the New Orleans, recently purchased from Great Britain.

MEN OF THE ENGINE ROOM AND AT THE FURNACES.

Commodore George W. Melville, Engineer-in-Chief of the United States Navy, is an authority the world over. He naturally and very properly believes that the engineers and firemen are deserving of the highest praise. Commodore Melville knows of the sufferings and hardships of the "black watch," the men who fed the fires under the boilers in an atmosphere intolerable, and the officers who handled the great machines under the protective deck, whose operation meant life or death to all hands.

Speed as a factor in the modern warship he speaks of with no uncertain approval, and Commodore Melville makes the interesting assertion that the control of the world's supply of coal will do more toward universal peace than any other one thing. He praises the performances of the Oregon with much feeling, of which the officers and men get their share. He has good words for the men in the turrets, and the credit for victories is shared with them.

In discussing technical affairs the Commodore pleads for a uniformity of design in all boats of a class as a means of quick repairs during a war through the providing of spare parts. He advocates repair ships like the Vulcan. He is a believer in water tube boilers, both for their quick steaming powers and their small component parts, which permits new boilers being put into a ship without tearing huge holes in its decks, as is necessary with the bulky marine boilers. In an article which appeared in the Stevens Institute Indicator and was entitled "The War's Teaching in Engineering," he says:

"Naval science is, in its application to warship construction, peculiarly tentative. Keen minds the world over are turned to its study. There is a vast volume of theory and, comparatively, but a mere trifle of

experience with which to check its reasoning. This is true as well of the whole art of naval war. The ironclad in action against a foe afloat has figured, but infrequently, on the pages of history. The brief but terrible experience of Lissa, of the South American wars, the Yalu, and the race of death at Santiago have each in turn taught something; but it would seem that only sea-fighting between opponents not only powerful but fairly equal in strength, courage and intelligence will solve fully many of the problems which confront the designer of the warship and those who handle it in battle.

"A distinguished strategical authority has described the naval tactician as 'floundering in his bog of uncertainty,' not only with regard to the composition of his fleet, but as to its most effective formation in action. The rivalry of warship types is ceaseless. For a generation the relative values, in displacement, of armor, armament, and the machinery which gives speed, have been discussed. In the struggle for supremacy armor and the gun have, time and again, conquered each other. The gun itself has had to wage a contest with its rivals, the ram and the torpedo; and the battleship, the backbone of the fleet, has met, in the proposed torpedo ram of surpassing speed, a foeman which, high naval authorities have contended, is its master, if the attack be made in force.

COAL TRUST COULD CONQUER WORLD.

"Coal is the life blood of the modern warship. Without it, it lies inert and harmless; with it, it is a swift engine of destruction. The brain of the conning tower, the nerves which radiate therefrom, the muscle and keen intelligence of the battery and engine-room are futile and powerless if coal be lacking for the furnaces. The control of the world's greatest coal fields by two or three powerful and allied nations is a possible and would be a most powerful factor in securing that universal peace which, at this time, it seems visionary to consider.

"The war with Spain gave striking examples of the helplessness which insufficient coal supply entails. The foresight of the Navy Department placed large stocks of fuel at the disposal of our naval commanders, in accessible ports, before war was declared; but the need of an adequate force of colliers for every battle fleet was shown to be imperative. The prolonged service of our ships in the tropics, both before and during hostilities, made conspicuous the need of keeping a large supply of fresh water available for them.

"Speed is one of the primary factors of warship design. In torpedo craft it takes paramount precedence of all other qualities; in commerce destroyers of the Columbia class it is given a chief place; in cruisers, armored or protected, it should be, as a general rule, proportional to the displacement; in battleships of the fighting line, which must carry the heaviest practicable armor and armament, its standing hitherto has been somewhat uncertain, especially in the United States, where the contention has been made that our shallow harbors require vessels of light draft and that to reduce displacement while still carrying formidable and well protected batteries the space allotted to machinery must be lessened, with a corresponding decrease in speed.

VICTORIES DUE TO TRAINING.

"Our victories on the sea were won through the efficient handling of ordnance and of motive machinery. The gun Captains who aimed our batteries, had, as a rule, passed through years of training on gunnery ships, and, later, in the frequent target practice which naval regulations prescribe. The schooling of eye, and nerve, and hand which the system gave these men was invaluable and foreshadowed the superb record which our guns have made.

"With the engineers' force the case was far different. In engine and fireroom compartments, the strain is fully as severe as any met at the guns. The sight and sound of swiftly moving machinery, the cyclonic swirl of rushing blowers, the heat of roaring fires, tell heavily on all but well seasoned nerves and trained physiques. The necessity of preliminary schooling to meet these conditions had long been foreseen, and my annual reports contain recommendations that there be provided, as one of the essentials of a modern fleet, suitable practice ships for the engineers' force.

"I venture to say that in the history of the republic there has been no more shining example of unwearying devotion to the flag than, in their ceaseless toil, in their grim endurance of suffering, these men of the engineer corps have shown. Indeed, it is difficult to imagine human beings existing in a more intolerable environment than that which prevailed in the torrid engine-rooms and stifling fire-rooms of our ships as they lay off the coasts of Cuba and Porto Rico and in Manila Bay, under the blazing sun of West Indian and South Asian seas

PRAISES OREGON'S MEN.

"It was amid such surroundings that the engineer personnel of the Oregon displayed as magnificent manhood as has ever been seen upon the sea in the run of that vessel from Puget Sound to Jupiter Inlet, a journey of over 14,500 miles, lasting seventy-nine days, during which there were no stops excepting for coal, and not one hour's delay through derangement of machinery. This record is wholly without parallel; it is, far and away, the most remarkable ever made by any warship of any navy in the world. The long run of the Oregon was not made under the conditions which prevail in battle. Despite the undeniable suffering of this memorable journey, the environment of the engineers' force in action was much worse.

"It should be remembered, too, that these results were achieved with a force of regular engineer officers wholly inadequate for the work. It gives me pleasure to say that the personnel bill now pending in Congress, which has my strong approval, will, if enacted into law and honestly administered, remedy this evil."

BOYS BELOW THE WATER LINE.

There was a boilermaker named Huntley on the gunboat Castine, who may be properly rated as a hero. The Castine on an urgent errand with forced draft was tearing through rough waters, when a bolt in one of the boilers broke loose, filling the furnaces with steam. There was imminent danger of an explosion that would make a worse wreck than the ill-fated Maine, and if this did not happen the likelihood was alarming that the fires would soon be put out and the Castine, without headway, go down in a rough sea. The forced draft was turned off and the fire banked. A board was thrown over the coals and Huntley, hammer and monkey-wrench in hand, without a second's hesitation, crawled into the cloud of steam in the red-hot furnace. It took him some time to finish his job and then he fainted. He was pulled out, half asphyxiated by the gases and overcome with the steam and heat. Next day he was the most modest man at the mess and evidently embarrassed by his shipmates' rough attentions. They tried to kill him with kindness, stuffing him with the choice bits of their own fare and at the same time slapping him on the back in approval. His willing-

ness to fight stopped the crew's demonstrations, but he was a marked man. Officers and men looked upon him as one of distinction.

BRAVERY IN THE PACK TRAIN.

James J. F. Archibald, the special war correspondent of Leslie's Weekly, says that one day when the fighting was going on fiercely and it was very dangerous to put up one's head to take a shot, a train came up to the line with a load of ammunition, and after the boxes had been dumped and the men were knocking off the tops and distributing the contents, one of the packers walked calmly up to the trenches and drawled: "I ain't had a crack at a greaser since we left the reservation, so here goes;" and with that he stepped out on the embankment and emptied his six-shooter at the enemy's trenches, fully a quarter of a mile away.

"Well, I reckon I must uv got four out of that six," he drawled, as he commenced to reload.

"You had better get down into the trench or one of them will get you," called a soldier.

"Get me," he said, contemptuously; "I never see a greaser yet thet could hit a bunch of cattle in a corral."

He was becoming the target for the entire Spanish forces opposite, and was drawing the entire fire, so an officer called to him to get down, and at the same time told him that if he wanted to shoot he could have a rifle.

"No," he said, "I ain't got time to monkey around here, for I got to get some grub up or you all don't eat." And off he went, telling the other packers how he had "done up" several of the enemy.

When the wounded were making their way back over the long road to Siboney, where their wounds might have some attention, the packers would allow those that were able to hold on, to ride the animals back to the rear, and thus save them many hours of suffering. One day I was riding back and overtook a train going very slowly, with a wounded man on every mule. When we got to the top of the hill, almost in sight of the headquarters, the chief packer in charge of the train stopped and told the men who were riding to get off.

"You see, I am supposed to come back like —— beatin' tan-bark to get another load, but I jus' can't go back empty, with them poor devils walkin'," he explained, apologetically. In a moment he was going over

the top of the hill and down into Siboney at a gallop, yelling at the top of his lungs for the drivers in the rear to close up the train, and as he came to a stop at the quartermaster's headquarters every animal in the pack was puffing from the short run down the hill. Then he called out to one of his assistants: "Well, that's the quickest run that we have made in some time," which prevented any reprimand for slowness from the officer in command. Although there was not an officer in the Fifth Army Corps that would reprimand the packers for assisting the wounded under ordinary circumstances, yet during these days, when transportation was scarce, it was a matter of life and death to lose even a little time, and the wounded were compelled to look out for themselves.

THE PATHOS OF THE WAR.

Honor and the enthusiasm of battle, the exalted feeling of patriotism fill the heart of the recruit. He sees its dreadful side in battle and is a witness to the trials and the horrors of deadly struggles. Then there is the pathos that makes the bold heart shudder, the firm mouth quiver and fills the stern eye with tears that will not be restrained. In its stories of the war Leslie's Weekly tells of an incident that must be repeated in an account of the thrilling incidents of the war, for no recital would be true that did not represent the shadows that were cast in the sunshine of the Nation's glory.

One day the pack-train came up the slope that approaches the military crest commanding the enemy's position, bringing a load of ammunition to the firing-line. The fight was at its height, and as the chief packer was about to ride away, after having distributed the boxes, he asked for one of the officers and handed him half a dozen letters, the first for him that had reached the front from home. The happy man crawled back into the trench and waved the letters to some fellow-officers, and jokingly taunted them on their bad luck. Then, as there was the serious duty of command on hand, he placed the welcome letters from home in his pocket without reading them and devoted himself to his duties. In less than half an hour he was dead, by a shrapnel shell that burst over the trench. He dropped without a sound. That night, when his fellow-officers prepared his body for burial by wrapping it in a blanket, they took the packet of letters from his pocket to send home.

The next day one of the officers was preparing the package of the contents of the dead officer's pockets to send home, and as he picked up

that little bundle of letters, still unopened, tears came to his eyes as he said: "Those are from his wife, and it was only yesterday morning that our mail came up and none came for him, and he was all broken up about it, and now they have arrived, but he did not see them, nor receive a single message from home."

He was about to inclose them in the package when he was asked if he knew whom they were from, and he said that they were from his wife and children—that he knew the writing well. It was suggested by James A. Archibald, a thoughtful correspondent, that in this case a little deception would not be wrong, as it was rather hard for the family to have the letters go back unopened, and for them always to feel that he had never received any word from them, so we broke the seal and took out the letters and crumpled the paper a bit. In one from his wife there was a faded rose, the petals of which were already commencing to drop, but the fragrance was still there.

Little did that fond wife think that this sweet token of love would be the only floral tribute at her loved one's burial. A message from his daughter was wrapped in a small silken flag, the flag for which her father had given his life, and inside was a little package, a couple of inches square, daintily tied with red, white and blue ribbons, containing a four-leaf clover, but it had come too late!

In another envelope, all by itself, was a little half-sheet of paper on which there was printed in pencil, in rough, childish letters: "Dere papa hurry up and come home Im lonsom." And that night when the trumpeter sounded "taps," it had a double meaning—a short sleep for the living and a long sleep for the dead.

CHAPTER XIII.

SHARPSHOOTING BY EXPERTS.

THERE has been so much said and written about the accuracy of the Spanish sharpshooters and their personal bravery in hiding in the tree-tops within the American lines, notwithstanding the knowledge that death would follow their discovery, and that there was no hope for them, unless the Americans were defeated and driven back, that it is fitting to tell something of the courage and accuracy of the American sharpshooters.

Whenever a Spaniard up a tree was becoming too deadly with his Mauser there would be volunteer and assigned hunting parties, who, leaving the ranks, stalked for Spaniards. The tiger hunts of India are tame sport to the man hunt at Santiago, and it took a stouter heart to steal from bush to bush and through the long grass, where the waving tops were as signals to the foe, than it does with dirk in hand to face a wounded grizzly or with rifle to the shoulder to stop the long leap of the panther.

It is related that at San Juan there was being much damage done by a Spanish sharpshooter and that it seemed utterly impossible to destroy him, unless ammunition was to be wasted in firing at long range at every tree-top in sight. Private George Washington Brown, of African descent and crap-playing proclivities, was "shakin' de bones" in his tin cup with his "bunkie," Alfred Johnson, of the same ancestry and passion for the dice, when just as the former had thrown "seven" a Mauser scattered the cubes. That was too much for George Washington. Grabbing his rifle, he begged of his Captain that he be allowed to hunt the Spaniard and the officer was not opposed.

The soldier made a detour of many miles, coming up on the rear of where he felt certain that Spaniard was, and then, with the cunning he had learned as a boy seeking game in the South and had perfected in the Northwest as an Indian fighter, he moved, making no sound and scarcely breathing, though in his heart he was cursing the sharpshooter who had spoilt his throw of "seven" and would have done the same had

it been "eleven." There was blood in his eye and caution in his footsteps. His hunter's instinct had not failed him, for, perched high in a tree not fifty yards from him, was a "sho' 'nough Spaniard, 'bout to kill frien' Johnson," as he said to himself.

It does not make any material difference who it was the Spaniard sought, for a Krag-Jorgensen bullet tore through his head and he fell to be counted among the missing of Spanish soldiers. Brown, too, fell, for a Mauser had caught him in the thigh, and it was then that his experience with the Indians helped him. Close to him was a fallen log and he quickly rolled to it, dragging his gun with him and praying fervently that he might live long enough to spot "dat odah one." Long he lay, thinking out a plan, when his quick ear caught the sound of rustling underbrush, and, as he afterward told the story:

"Dat bullet jus' hurt jus' like de crack ob a moole-whip or a 'black-snake,' an' den while I was laying dah huggin' de log it burned like a hot pokah an' mah leg were gettin' mighty stiff like, an' ah heard de brush crackle agin an' ah knowed dat Spaniard wah aftah me foah certain, an' forgot de misery in mah leg and wondahed which side de log he goin' come lookin' foah a dead nigger, an' me an' de gun wah ready foah him an' he come de right way, and we bof shot sudden, but he didn' shoot no moah. To be sho' indeed I knocked him in de head, an' ah snook back painful to dah lines whah de fool sentry come nigh sendin' me to Kingdom Come to jine dose Spaniards, an' blame if de sentry wahn't Jonsin."

On another occasion a detail of six men were sent out to find an unusually troublesome sharpshooter. They were positive he was in a certain tree, which they gradually surrounded. Their instructions were to run no risks, but as soon as they were in fair shooting distance they were to blaze away at the high foliage. A Spaniard fell from the tree unwounded. He had lost his balance through fright. He was within the American lines and had killed one and wounded seven American soldiers. There was no mercy for him, and there is no necessity of describing his death. He had a chance to say his prayers and he felt no pain.

Another scouting party was less fortunate, for two soldiers were killed outright and four badly wounded in ridding their fellows of one Spanish sharpshooter. A Lieutenant, whose men were badly bothered by the enemy's splendid aim and constant alertness, detailed six men to hunt one Spaniard. Some hours later he saw the Corporal, John

Kelley, who had been in charge of the squad, taking his place in the trenches, the right side of his head smeared with blood. Going up to him he ordered the wounded man to the rear and asked him about the sharpshooter, to hear a pitiful tale. The Corporal's tale follows:

"Lieutenant," he said, "we could not tell where he was, but suspected that he was in a certain bunch of trees, and as we were carefully looking for him 'Biff' Jones fell dead, shot between the eyes. We knew we were looking in the wrong direction, for from where he stood no one could have hit 'Biff' as he was shot, from those trees, and then Reilly fell, shot just above the ear. He, too, was dead. Then we got down on our bellies and crawled for some other trees, and, sooner than I could tell it, both Robinson and Hunt were stretched out badly hurt. Quinn and I were feeling queer, and poor Quinn he got one in the hip.

"It wouldn't do for six of us to get licked by one Spaniard, and I was mad and reckless, and stood up and got it through the ear, but I saw him, when he must have been reloading. I could not see much, but what I did see I filled full of lead and he dropped. I made sure he was dead and came back and got help and the wounded boys are now at Siboney."

Kelley, with his head bandaged, was on the firing line the next morning and his comrades swear that the way he fought proved that he was still thinking of his comrades, Jones and Reilly, and the others in the hospital.

It is interesting to note that not only the men of our regulars are scientific in handling the rifle, but that the officers who wear the sword as a symbol of power rather than as an offensive aid, are competent and clever with the gun. Indeed, it is a point of particular pride with the officers to be able to shoot well; nothing gives them quite the same hold on their men or more quickly wins their admiration and trust. At many army posts shooting matches between the officers has been a regular practice and a means of passing time off duty. When our few regulars were widely scattered over broad territories and there were not many officers and men in one place, there were necessarily handicaps, spurring on the superior to greater perfection and encouraging the less skilled to trials leading to real improvement. The Government has not been stingy with ammunition.

Inspector General Reade reports that First Lieutenant Charles Muir, Second Infantry, is of "the class of distinguished sharpshooters," known for ten years for his honorable identification with target prac-

tice. He is a man who mixes brains with gunpowder and has ability beyond that of neatly and correctly judging "the effects of wind, light and shade on a projectile, also of ability to have eye and finger muscles act simultaneously in pulling trigger."

While in the trenches in the battles of Fort San Juan he saw a guard of the Spanish at a range of 1,100 yards, adjusted his sights, United States rifle, model 92, fired twice, called his shot instantly and each time brought down an enemy. Members of his squad, with equal success, same time and range, potted a third Spaniard.

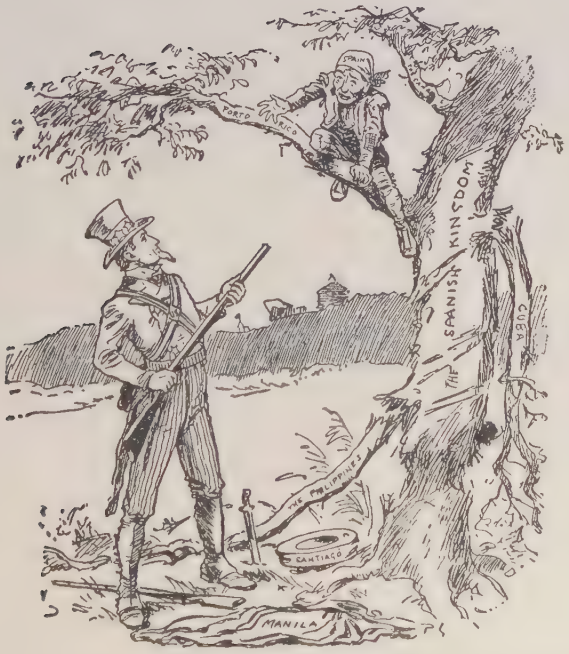
"This is in direct line," says General Reade, "with what I have, during many years past, advocated and repeatedly officially recommended. Some of our distinguished marksmen have earned all of the medals that orders allow and are disqualified from entering further small-arm competitions, but ask that each year they may be permitted to compete with those of their own class, the prizes to be rifles or carbines of especial manufacture, range-finders, binocular glasses, or other paraphernalia proper for the outfit of a marksman who is also a practical hunter.

"Captain George Morgan, Third Cavalry, and who is also a distinguished marksman, United States Army, an officer of ripened experience in Indian warfare in Arizona, and who is, like Lieutenant Muir, a very cool-headed man, of good judgment amid surroundings of excitement, says that he would have had some interesting data to furnish supporting my conviction that individual marksmanship, properly supplemented, counts in battle, if he had had a proper range-finder. He says that in trench work, having no glass, he could not locate the point of impact of the bullets, even when his troops fired volleys.

"Lieutenant Hugh D. Wise, Ninth United States Infantry, alleges that during the battle of July 1st he and a sharpshooter named McIlhaney had their attention attracted by a Spanish officer who was conspicuous because riding a white horse. Guessing at the range, 1,100 yards, McIlhaney opened fire upon and hit the Spaniard. Lieutenant Wise says that he subsequently learned that General Linares, the commander of the Santiago Spanish forces, rode a horse of that color when wounded, and he believes that McIlhaney did it. Our trenches in places were not over 500 or 600 yards from the trenches of the enemy during the fusillades of the 2d and 3d of July.

"One of our Lieutenants of artillery told me that at a period when the Spanish guerrillas were especially pestiferous and annoying, a Sec-

ond Lieutenant, name unknown, went under a tree in whose dense foliage he thought a sharpshooter might be concealed, and fired at random several revolver shots into the tree-top. After the fourth or fifth shot a Mauser or Remington rifle was dropped from overhead, followed a few seconds later by a frightened Spaniard, who was clad in a dark-blue United States Army blouse. My informant went on to say that he must decline giving me names, because the incident closed without aid from any priest or clergyman.



Spain—"Don't shoot any more. I'll come down!"—Chicago Tribune.

CHAPTER XIV.

PLANTED ROUGH RIDERS' GUIDON ON SAN JUAN'S RAMPART.

HISTORY records that some of our greatest Generals say the best soldiers are the very young men or boys. They exhibit a dash and disregard of danger that is not as a rule the spirit of their elders. This was splendidly shown in the case of Sergeant Rolla A. Fullinwider, of the First Volunteer Cavalry, popularly known as Roosevelt's Rough Riders. Fullinwider comes from Raton, New Mexico. He was a member of G troop.

His twentieth birthday occurred on the 20th of June, 1898, and he celebrated the anniversary in royal style. It was better than an old-time Fourth of July, for he spent the day in firing at the Spaniards in the battles of Las Guasimas.

Cannon boomed and rifles cracked, while shells screamed and burst on every side, but the young soldier received not a scratch, and seven days later at San Juan was in the desperate charge up through the cactus-covered hillside, and planted the first American guidon on the Spanish works at the top, bringing glory and praise to himself and honor to his home.

Fullinwider was an acting First Sergeant during most of the campaign in Cuba. It was in this capacity that he climbed the Spanish works at San Juan and planted the company guidon thereon, the first symbol of American authority to be raised over the Spanish position.

Sergeant Fullinwider was seen by a reporter of the Kansas City Journal and talked very modestly of his own share in the work of that bloody day, though he has received high compliments in the reports by his superior officers and in his discharge papers.

He describes the fight as a day of great excitement and hard work, and says that though the Rough Riders were without food there for forty-eight hours, they scarcely noticed it, so eager were they to fight and so constant was the excitement, owing to the continuous fusillade kept up by the Spaniards.

For himself, he escaped without a scratch, though once a fragment

from a bursting Spanish shell grazed his chest and another threw mud all over him.

After the San Juan fight the men stood in trenches up to their waists in water a good deal of the time, and kept up the fighting for nearly ten days. They did not have much time for cooking nor eating had they been so disposed or had plenty of provisions. Sergeant Fullinwider was one of the eight men who carried Hamilton Fish off of the field, and he saw much of the horrors of the terrible fights in which the Rough Riders were engaged.

Like all brave men, the Sergeant doesn't take up any time complaining. He was not sick a day himself while in Cuba, though his bunkmate died of yellow fever in his presence. While the Spaniards fought well and bravely in a set engagement, they seemed panic stricken and fled whenever the Americans advanced or charged. So the army was obliged to keep moving. The Sergeant also says that much of the scarcity of food was due to the thieving Cubans, for whom he has no respect.

When advancing to the fight the soldiers left their provisions and knapsacks in the rear because the luggage was too heavy to carry, and when they returned for the food it had been stolen.

Sergeant Fullinwider says the stories of Montauk Point are mostly newspaper fabrications. He was there just thirty days and he thought it a lovely spot and says they had fine provisions. He thinks the sickness was due to the boys coming from the hot dampness of Cuba to the cooler latitude while their systems were full of disease germs from the rank rotting vegetation of that unhealthy climate.

The Sergeant is not one of those who think the Americans might have been beaten had the Spaniards refused to surrender. He thinks they could almost have been whipped alone with the dynamite field gun the Rough Riders had with them, the only one with the land forces. He says this gun would have demolished everything within a hundred feet of where a bomb fell, and tells of a big ten-inch Spanish gun which looked like it had been picked up and twisted all out of shape by some giant. A dynamite bomb had struck ten feet from the gun and did this work.

Sergeant Fullinwider's soldier instincts seem to be a family trait. His brother, who is Doctor Gaines' son-in-law, is an Ensign in the navy, now on board the Mohican in Pacific waters, and the Sergeant himself wants to go into the regular army if he can secure a commission.

CHAPTER XV.

BRAVE WORK OF AMERICAN WOMEN.

MISS HELEN GOULD AND MISS ANNA WHEELER'S NOBLE SERVICE IN OUR WAR WITH SPAIN.

THE heroism of Army and Navy is a legacy from brave sires and equal to it is the splendid work of the women whose daring of hardships and dangers in their tender works of mercy was inspired with the spirit of the pioneer mothers, whose splendid devotion made possible the subjugation of savages and turning the wilderness into the homesteads of a mighty nation. With the first call to arms and the ready response of the men came the proffered services of the women. It seemed that every girl who had a brother or a lover enlisted was ready to give her services to the sick and the wounded, and so eager were the applicants that it was a delicate and difficult task to select those who were fitted through health and understanding of the duties to act as nurses.

All over the land schools of instruction were formed to give practical lessons in the gentle art of nursing, that often reclaims from death when the surgeon and physician have done all they could and acknowledged failure. The men of medicine and the clinic, the authorities in the great hospitals volunteered their services to teach the would-be nurses, and it is a satisfaction to reflect that though the majority of the young women volunteers never got near the front or to the camps and the army hospitals, yet the knowledge they gathered is wealth accumulated in homes where sickness must enter to be driven away by skilled as well as sympathetic care.

It was not only the girls accustomed to more or less privation and the good nuns, whose lives are those of self-sacrifice, who volunteered, but there were scores of wealthy women, leaders in fashion, and so accustomed to the life of the rich that luxuries had become but simple necessities, who were eager and glad to proffer their services. It was

not a fad with them, but a call to duty, proof of their splendid Americanism.

The patriotism of the colonial ladies who went without their dearly loved tea was emulated by the young women accustomed to French dresses and bonnets, and the ugly temper exhibited in Paris towards America was resented in a way that made it necessary for store-keepers to take off the tags from French makes, and as even this did not satisfy the disdainful ladies, the gold-loving people of Omnia Galia soon learned that a better show of neutrality and increased control over vicious tongues was to them a national business necessity.

It was this patriotic impulse that went into even the details of dress that made good students in the schools of nursing and splendid nurses, when the time came for their work and help in the camps, where the wounded needed greatest care, and the fever patients should cease their ravings at the touch of a gentle hand and fall into saving slumbers. America is proud of both daughters and sons. Scattered over the great country in the homes they left to fight in the ranks of the brave are boys who, when they are gray-haired veterans, rightful successors to the Grand Army of the Republic, shall remember and bless the girls who saved them for long lives of usefulness.

The Red Cross, in all its different branches and several organizations, did untold good work and has been recognized by the President and the National Legislature, and its insignia is and always shall be a badge of honor and glory. The Senate passed a resolution tendering the thanks of Congress to Miss Clara Barton and the Red Cross Society for their services in behalf of humanity during the late war, and several similar organizations for the relief of the soldiers think they are entitled to the same distinction.

The Red Cross Society is not a monopoly, any organization for the relief of suffering being entitled to bear that name and to protection in foreign lands under the Geneva convention. There were several independent branches of the Red Cross at work during the war, but Miss Barton is so well known over the world that her society comes to mind when the name is mentioned and she and her noble lieutenants thoroughly did the work in which they were honorably acquainted.

The next most prominent was the Woman's Relief Association of New York, of which Miss Helen Gould was the moving spirit. Bishop Potter was President of the National Relief Association. The Massachusetts Volunteer Aid Society had its headquarters at Boston, and

there were societies in nearly every city and in many towns for the aid of sick and needy soldiers, which did great good, and have been remembered not only by Congress and State Legislatures, but are not forgotten by the soldiers themselves. Bills have also been passed tendering the thanks of Congress to several individual philanthropists and nurses, including Miss Gould, Miss Annie Wheeler, daughter of General Wheeler; Miss Chanler, Miss Anna Bouligny and others whose work deserved the reward of recognition. Miss Barton had the unusual distinction of being mentioned in the President's message.

Helen Miller Gould.

Miss Gould has received formal thanks of the Common Council of the city of New York and the Legislature of New York, and the Legislatures of other States whose sons she cared for in the hours of their helplessness and misery. Bills have been passed in the House of Representatives authorizing the Director of the Mint to strike a gold medal to commemorate the services of that modest little woman in behalf of the American Army. All the rival associations admit her claims. She did everything for the sick, wounded and homeless soldiers and spent as much for their relief from her own purse as was raised by the Red Cross societies.

It is not forgotten and will be always on the records that Miss Gould was the first of our citizens of great wealth to open her purse to aid her country and that, like Robert Morris of Revolutionary days, her wealth was small in comparison to her patriotism. As a first move and proof of her love of country she sent the President a check for $100,000 for the use of the Government, with the request that there be no publicity, but this proved impossible in a system of national business where all is accounted for and accredited, and then, too, her example was inspiring, and it was right that the people should know.

Miss Gould's patriotism was not limited by the fortune she so promptly gave to her country, but her time and means were devoted to the care of the soldiers, those in the camps and the heroes from the battlefields, who came back sick unto death with the fevers and diseases of the tropics. She carried from Camp Wikoff to her own beautiful home on the Hudson soldiers enough to fill it, turning the mansion into a hospital, where the ample grounds gave occupation and exercise

to the convalescent, and the very sick could see the wide sweep of the great river and the glory of the clouds and cliffs in sunlight and shadow, and the heart faint from exhaustion took courage, and the eyes weary with watching the white walls of the tent were rested and made glad.

Her goodness did not cease with the home-sending of her brave boys, for she was mother and sister to them. She consulted and counseled with them as to their future plans. It was possible for a woman of her vast wealth and connection with big enterprises to find employment for those without it and she did. There is, too, more than one youthful veteran, whose ambition was in the professions, receiving the requisite training through her aid, and the farmer's boy from the plains, whose longing was for a chance and who dropped his labor at the call to arms, awoke from the fever that followed the fighting to the realization that the path had been made clear for the future he might make for himself under advantageous conditions. A Nation honors Helen Gould.

MISS ANNIE WHEELER.

Miss Annie Wheeler, daughter of Major-General Joseph Wheeler, can count as her admirers some 80,000,000 people, for in every State of the Union they have heard of her and her great goodness. She has the additional honor attached to her career as a volunteer nurse in the fact that her heroic devotion was not alone shown in the home camps, but at Santiago, where the wounded and those with deadly and contagious fevers needed the care of women.

Lack of experience had kept her from the Red Cross, but through pluck and perseverance she went with the troops to Santiago. Her woman's intuition to do the right thing at the right time, and natural aptitude and courage quickly won the confidence of those whose fear was that she could not succeed, and it was not long before she was noted as among the best of the brave women whose mission was one of highest humanity.

Born and bred in the refinement of a Southern home, unaccustomed to other than the gentle associations there, she faced in the field the hardships of an active campaign and the dangers, and gave her strength and aid among scenes of suffering and mutilation, such as strong and brave men turned their eyes from. The wounds and the blood and the dreadful horror steadied her nerves, for these but testified to the need

of her services. The dying blessed, and the wounded and sick worshipped this little nurse whose eyes never flinched and were filled with a world of sympathy and hope for her charges.

When at last it was possible to send the sick to the recuperative camps at Montauk Point, named Wikoff in honor of the gallant Colonel who fell leading his troops, Miss Wheeler returned with the soldiers. Though it might have seemed reasonable to expect that, worn out with the work at Santiago, she would have gone to her home to rest and recuperate, yet this soldier's daughter felt that her duty was still with the troops. She had not lost her good health, or her buoyant, hopeful spirit, and was of inestimable help and inspiration in the days that were dark, though the sun shone over the white tented camp where the life-giving breezes swept through the company streets and canvas hospitals.

Troopship followed transport in rapid succession. Haggard, yellow-faced, lack-lustre-eyed, stoop-shouldered remnants of regiments wearily took up the march to their allotted camps, while back of them were the laden ambulances with men too weak to walk, too brave to groan. From the fever-frenzied men there was every now and then a jarring laugh, a bold order to charge, or strange, savage cry to "Keep steady, there," "Fill them full of lead," or a feeble request for "pie," the deadly stuff the soldiers singularly craved and sometimes having secured by stealth or through the mistaken charity of the unthinking, it worked untold harm and added to the wooden crosses of the cemetery, sentinels on the hill-tops standing guard over the resting brave.

Like an angel of mercy the little woman in the gray nurse's dress and white apron went from cot to cot with a word of cheer for those too weary to fight disease longer or too sick to care whether death came or not. And as she moved, the eyes of the boys followed her, their comfort, with an adoration well deserved. Washing the hot faces and hands, soothing the delirium-contorted brow, patting out a pillow to make it soft for a tired head, straightening the bed-clothes of the fretful and peevish, doing all those little things that only a woman can do so well, she fought and won many a life battle, and sent home to those they loved scores of thankful soldiers, whose reverent, low-spoken good-byes and outstretched, feeble hands were sufficient recompense where no reward was expected other than the consciousness of having done good.

On her knees, holding an emaciated hand that had been so strong

for the glory of the Nation, smoothing back the tangled, fever-scorched hair, she looked into the eyes of the soldier, giving him hope and comfort and trust, and the courage to fight for life and patience to rest for strength. Bending over his couch she tempted the sick one to but taste of refreshment, or persuaded him to take medicine when through weakness and weariness he would, like a peevish child, refuse it. She was here, there and everywhere and in all places with her ready help and inspiring courage. The hours were never too long or the drudgery too exacting.

And then came the terrible tragedy, when one who had done so much for others lost her own, and the "reveille" sounded over the hills just as the minister read in the burial service, "I am the resurrection and the life," and gray-headed General Wheeler bowed over the Stars and Stripes covering his boy's remains, and his daughter and her sisters grieved by his side. Miss Wheeler, in the midst of her heroic labors, had been stricken with the death of her brother, an officer in the Navy, who was drowned in the surf. In fulfillment of her other duties she had seen many die, and the anguished faces of parents who had come to their sons only to witness them die, and she must have remembered how many had sternly controlled themselves for the sake of the comrades lying in the same ward. The bravery came back in her heart and she returned to the living, so greatly in need of her ministrations.

There was one whose loved soldier boy was saved by Miss Wheeler's devotion, brought back from the shadow of death, out of the dangerous indifference to life so often bringing the end, and he had seen her when that boy was carried from the ward where he had been given up by the doctors, taken in his iron bed by comrades to a tent where he might die without the others seeing him. The man had seen her place over the soldier's face his battered campaign hat to shield the weak eyes from the sun, and then he had seen her, knowing as she did that there was little hope but hers left, kneel by the cot and breathe words of hope and the desire to live in the soldier's heart. The battle had been won. As a slight testimonial of his great regard and respect that man brought a few roses to the nurse, trusting that they might with their fresh beauty gratify one who had looked so long on suffering and the horrors of the hospital. What she said, in the soft dialect of the South, is worth repeating, as showing the spirit in which she worked:

"These are very beautiful. I shall give one each to some of my boys;

not the officers, though I am detailed to them, but to the privates—the regulars—for they have no friends near."

The man, passing by the wards hours later, saw more than one poor boy asleep with the flower where it would greet him on waking, and others tenderly holding it, prizing it, for Miss Wheeler had handed it to him with a pretty, cheering word. The red rose was to the soldier a symbol of her love and sympathy. Miss Wheeler is brevetted in the hearts of a nation, while the one she saved with the others at Camp Wikoff learned that he had been brevetted for gallantry in action while on the way to Manila for further service under the flag.

Miss Chanler is another young woman of great wealth, a member of the Astor family, who, with Miss Anna Bouligny, established a hospital for officers at Ponce and another afterward at San Juan at her own expense. She supported them after she had returned home and left them in charge of the army surgeons.

Belonging to one of the old and very wealthy families of New York city, Miss Chanler was one of the first to volunteer her services and spend liberally of her means for the welfare of the soldiers. Her brother distinguished himself, not only by his gallantry in action, but for his liberality in fitting out and equipping soldiers. These two are splendid types of a class too often misunderstood, because sometimes misrepresented through unfortunate specimens. Miss Chanler exhibited all the splendid qualities, bravery and patience of the Red Cross women.

OTHER VOLUNTEER NURSES.

There were many other volunteer nurses who, with equal devotion, served their country in nursing back to health her soldiers. The daughter of Secretary Long and three of her fellow-students at Johns Hopkins Medical College, spent their vacations in nursing the sick and wounded.

Mrs. Ennis, a colored women from the Freedman's hospital at Washington, went to Santiago with the army and has been there ever since nursing the colored soldiers. She is one of the humble heroines of the war, but will be remembered with the rest by a grateful country.

Mrs. Lesser, Mrs. Trumbull White, correspondent of the Chicago Record on the Red Cross ship, and Miss Janet Jennings, another newspaper correspondent, did valuable work. Mrs Howland came all the

way from Los Angeles and paid her own expenses for the sake of Uncle Sam's soldiers.

DIED DOING THEIR DUTY.

There were two nurses who died for their country and will be held in the same esteem as the soldiers who fell on the battlefield. Mrs. Ellen Hardin Walworth, of New York, not only faced disease and death in the hospitals of Fort Monroe and Montauk Point all summer, but gave her only daughter, a beautiful girl of nineteen. The National Society of the Daughters of the Revolution will erect a monument to commemorate the heroism and sacrifice of Rubina Walworth. Her mother was one of the three founders of that order and she was the grandchild of the late Chancellor Walworth of New York.

Sister Mary Larkin, a nun from Emmitsburg, Md., died of yellow fever while nursing the soldiers with the patience and skill of the good Sisters of Charity.

Fifteen hundred contract nurses were employed by the medical corps during the war and there were about 150 volunteers. The exact number is not known, because their names were not upon the rolls. Twelve of the contract nurses and three volunteers sacrificed their lives. This is a remarkably small percentage, only fifteen out of a total of 1,650 who endured the climate, the hardships and exposure to contagious diseases, but among the living as well as the dead are many whose services deserve special recognition, though they did not come into the prominence of those mentioned.

In many a distant home a mother's thankful prayer does not forget to call down blessings on such women, for the sons who returned have not confined their talks to the experiences of the Santiago battles, for, as they recounted the days of their sickness, their faces have lightened up with glad memories of the good women who saved them. There is surely a great reward in this love of those they have never seen, and the women nurses share the glory of the soldiers and sailors of the United States.

CHAPTER XVI.

BATTLE OF MANZANILLO.

AUXILIARY VESSELS FIGHT THE THIRD MOST IMPORTANT NAVAL BATTLE OF THE WAR—SPLENDID WORK OF THE HIST, HORNET AND WOMPATUCK.

THE BATTLE OF MANZANILLO ranks third in importance among the various naval engagements, but it occurred so late in the war and followed so closely upon the heels of more important events that it did not receive the notice it deserved.

The story of this battle is the story of how seven light-draught American gunboats went into a hostile harbor and in less than four hours destroyed ten Spanish vessels. Manzanillo is on the south coast of Cuba, at the east end of a sort of inland sea, enclosed by a line of cays extending from Cape Cruz to Tunas de Zaza.

Manzanillo was a headquarters for blockade runners, and the rendezvous for a lot of small Spanish gunboats of 250 tons and under, which were built expressly for Cuban work. Altogether Manzanillo became a very troublesome place, and was very hard to get at on account of an inner line of cays running across the mouth of the harbor.

At different times two attempts at reconnoissance had been made, one by the Scorpion and Osceola, and one by the Hist, Hornet and Wompatuck, but they had been driven out under a heavy fire, all of them being struck, and one of them temporarily disabled. From their reports it was learned that there were three shore batteries and a number of gunboats in the harbor, but no information could be obtained as to whether the harbor was mined or as to the strength of its defense.

It was finally decided that a combined attack be made by the Wilmington, Helena, Scorpion, Osceola, Hist, Hornet and Wompatuck on the morning of July 18th. The Wilmington and Helena were twin gunboats of light draught and high military masts, which were

designed for work in Chinese waters. The Osceola and Wompatuck were armed tugs and the Scorpion, Hist and Hornet converted yachts. The two bigger gunboats, although they looked so formidable that the Spaniards took them for battleships, really drew but ten feet of water and were particularly well adapted for work in shallow harbors.

Commander C. C. Todd, of the Wilmington, the senior officer in command, had received orders to destroy the enemy's ships, but to avoid, if possible, an engagement with the shore batteries. The fate of the Winslow was still remembered, and the folly of taking such small vessels within reach of heavy guns mounted on land had been impressed upon the minds of commanding officers, especially when there were no landing forces available.

Commander Todd divided his fleet into three divisions, to feel their way into the harbor by three different passages through the line of cays, and thus prevent the enemy's escape. The Wilmington and Helena took a northern channel on the extreme left, the Scorpion and Osceola found a channel for themselves directly opposite the town, while the Hist, Hornet and Wompatuck took a channel still farther south and to the extreme right of the line of attack.

It was a bright, sunshiny morning, with a gentle easterly breeze blowing in the faces of the men, as the ships stood in for Manzanillo at 6:50 o'clock. Commander W. P. Swinburne, of the Helena, followed the course set by the Wilmington, and at 7 o'clock, when distant about 400 yards on her starboard quarter, hoisted his colors and battle flag.

The five ships were strung along inside the islands and cays from north to south in the order already named, and at 7:04 one shore battery opened fire, the shots falling short. Commander Swinburne ordered the signal rockets kept in the military mast to be thrown overboard, and gradually closed up the gap between himself and the Osceola and Scorpion, which first opened fire on the shore batteries at 7:18. A little later the Wilmington opened fire toward the town, and at 7:52 the Helena, which had made out several of the enemy's ships in the inner harbor, opened fire with her port battery.

Several of the Spanish gunboats started out to do battle with the attacking fleet, but the cool, deliberate firing of the Yankee sailors drove them back, and at 8:07 a steamer at the north entrance to the harbor was observed to be on fire.

In addition to the three batteries along the line of the water front, a blockhouse on a hill behind the town opened fire at 8:20, but its

shots fell short of the American ships, which were off 3,000 or 4,000 yards, advancing obliquely. It was not an easy advance, as the larger gunboats found barely water enough to float them, and had to be guided by the two men on the sounding platforms, who were heaving the lead constantly. When the soundings approached two fathoms it was necessary to feel about for deeper water. As they worked up into a range of 3,000 yards the enemy's shots began to drop close to the Helena, many of them passing over the bridge and one shrapnel bursting over the forecastle. The bullets spattered about and perforated the navigator's trousers, but nobody paid any attention, because nobody was injured. The men on the sounding platforms continued to sing out the story of the lead, and if one of them dodged a close shell he did not for a minute neglect his work.

Officers and men fought in that businesslike fashion that has characterized the navy throughout the war. A little to the south of the town was the pontoon Maria, a hulk used as a receiving and supply ship. This pontoon had mounted some 6-inch guns, which were likely to be annoying. Commander Todd knew it must be destroyed, but saw no reason for a waste of ammunition, so signaled the Helena, "Fire on gunboats, we are firing at hulk." At 9:20 not only the hulk, but several of the gunboats and transports were seen to be in flames.

At 9:56 the Helena was ordered to devote its attention to the gunboats on the right of the vessels already afire, and stood close inshore, firing her starboard battery at a range of 2,100 yards. One by one the hostile gunboats were set on fire, two of them exploding like firecrackers, and the others drifting helplessly ashore. But at this time the Helena and some of the other vessels were within easy range of the shore batteries and of a blockhouse on the hillside above Gua Point. The plunging fall of some of the close shots showed that the Spaniards were using mortar batteries or smooth-bore guns with a high trajectory.

As all the enemy's ships were seen to be destroyed or sunk, the Wilmington, at 10:22, gave a general signal to cease firing, and the American fleet put out into the bay. The Helena continued firing a few minutes longer to cover her withdrawal, and that of the Wompatuck, which was on her port quarter and was being spattered with the water thrown up by the shells from the batteries. At 10:35 the firing had ceased. In this action the Helena, which had a chance to do a generous share of the work, fired 203 common shells from her 4-inch

guns, 129 from her 6-pounders, 84 from her 1-pounders, and 430 from the 6-millimetre Colt's machine gun.

Not a ship was materially injured or a man lost on the American side, and the fleet easily picked up the small boats and other movables which during the action had been left at one of the Cuban headquarters on the coast.

The Spanish lost something near 200 men, six gunboats, three transports and a pontoon. Among the gunboats were the Guardian, Estella, Cuba Espanola and Guantanamo. The destroyed transports were the El Gloria, the Jose Garcia, as well as the Purissima Concepcion, which had been chased into port by the blockading fleet. This destruction was wrought under the fire of at least four shore batteries and two blockhouses or small forts. Great care was taken to do as little damage as possible to the town itself, and as far as has been learned, little, if any, was done.

The American fleet put into Manzanillo Harbor to transact a little business with the Spanish ships, and when that business was promptly and successfully finished, the vessels of the fleet returned to their stations, excepting the Wompatuck, which was sent to Guantanamo to report to the Admiral the result of the fight.

Uncle Sam—"Get off the earth!"—Boston Herald.

CHAPTER XVII.

PORTO RICAN CAMPAIGN.

GENERAL MILES' ARMY WELCOMED BY NATIVES—BATTLES OF GUAYAMA AND COAMO—PROTOCOL PREVENTS BATTLES.

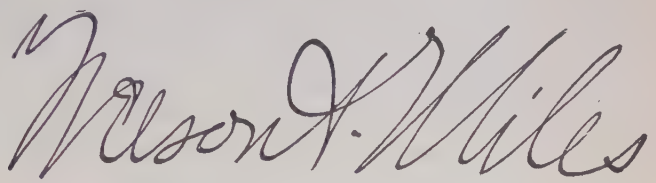
AT THE END of a campaign lasting but nineteen days Porto Rico fell into the hands of American troops, commanded in person by General Nelson A. Miles, the ranking Major-General of the United States Army.

General Miles left Guantanamo Bay on Thursday evening, July 21st, after having assisted in arranging for the surrender of Santiago. His destination was supposed to be San Juan, a strongly fortified fort on the north coast. The Spaniards, having knowledge of his coming, hurried all available troops to San Juan Point to assist in repelling the invader, but they were not called upon to meet the American Army at that point, for General Miles had made a strategic move and invaded the harbor of Guanica on the South coast, one of the only three safe harbors in Porto Rico.

On July 26th he sent the following cable to the Secretary of War at Washington:

"Circumstances were such that I deemed it advisable to take the Harbor of Guanica first, fifteen miles west of Ponce, which was successfully accomplished between daylight and 11 o'clock. Spaniards surprised. The Gloucester, Commander Wainwright, first entered the harbor; met with slight resistance; fired a few shots. All the transports are now in the harbor, and infantry and artillery rapidly going ashore. This is a well-protected harbor; water sufficiently deep for all transports; the heavy vessels can anchor within a few hundred feet of shore. The Spanish flag was lowered and the American flag

raised at 11 o'clock to-day. Captain Higginson, with his fleet, has rendered able and earnest assistance. Troops in good health and best spirits. No casualties.



"Major-General Commanding Army."

The fighting vessels in the fleet commanded by Captain Higginson were the Massachusetts, Columbia, Cincinnati, Wasp, Gloucester, Dixie and Annapolis.

Referring to the change of destination, General Miles, in a later report, says that he had been anxiously looking, for several days before starting, for the arrival of tugs, launches and lighters that had been ordered, but none arrived. He still hoped to meet them in the Windward Passage, en route to Porto Rico. He knew his cablegrams had passed over foreign cables, and regarded it as necessary to deceive the enemy as to his destination. Therefore, in the absence of his landing launches and lighters, he considered the advisability of finding a safe harbor and capturing the necessary appliances from the enemy.

He conferred by letter and signal with Captain Higginson, in command of the naval convoy, and decided to land at Guanica, as the enemy had doubtless become aware of the original destination, and then to move on Ponce.

Captain Higginson accepted the change of plan, and a vessel was sent off Cape San Juan to give word of the change of base to the approaching re-enforcements. The little Gloucester went ahead and forced the entrance into Guanica, and soon the entire expedition was landed in Porto Rico and began its successful campaign.

Lieutenant Hughes and a detail of bluejackets landed and drove the Guardia Civile out of the town and the occupation of Guanica by the troops was carried out as comfortably as if they had been landing in an American city.

Three days later General Guy V. Henry moved on Juaco and General Miles went down the coast to the port of Ponce. Two miles back of the port is the city of Ponce, and its surrender to the American forces constitutes one of the many humorous incidents of the Porto

Rican campaign. According to official records the town first surrendered to Commander Charles H. Davis, of the Dixie, and later to General Miles, but according to Richard Harding Davis, the famous war correspondent, who was an eye witness, the city first surrendered to Ensign Curtin, of the Wasp, who had the military commander called up by telephone and compelled him to drive on a gallop from the City of Ponce to the port in order to tender the formal surrender of the city.

General Miles' entry into Guanica, Yauco, Ponce and Juan Diaz was characterized by scenes rarely witnessed in war. The Porto Ricans were wild with delight. They shouted, "Viva los Americanos" until they were hoarse; they crowded around the soldiers, tendering fruits and cigars; they strewed flowers in the pathway of the victorious army and everything that could be utilized in the way of symbolizing the national colors was waved or floated from housetops and treetops.

At Yauco, on the road to Ponce, the army was met by the Mayor and half the population, and greeted with the following proclamation:

"Citizens: To-day the citizens of Porto Rico assist in one of her most beautiful festivals. The sun of America shines upon our mountains and valleys this day of July, 1898. It is a day of glorious remembrance for each son of this beloved isle, because for the first time there waves over it the flag of the Stars, planted in the name of the Government of the United States of America by the Major-General of the American Army, General Miles.

"Porto Ricans, we are by the miraculous intervention of the God of the Just, given back to the bosom of our mother America, in whose waters nature placed us as a people of America. To her we are given back in the name of her Government by General Miles, and we must send her our most expressive salutation of generous affection through our conduct toward the valiant troops represented by distinguished officers and commanded by the illustrious General Miles.

"Citizens: Long live the Government of the United States of America! Hail to their valiant troops! Hail Porto Rico, always American!

"Yauco, Porto Rico, United States of America.

"El Alcade, FRANCISCO MEGIA."

At Juan Diaz a brass band playing "Yankee Doodle" came out to meet the Americans, while natives who had assembled on the outskirts of the town gave them a jubilant reception. Many of them fell

on their knees, embracing the legs of the American troopers. The Mayor made a speech of welcome in the plaza, and the crowd shouted, "Death to the Spaniards." The people decorated their homes with American flags and received the soldiers as their guests.

While these events were taking place Major-General John R. Brooke, with General P. C. Hains' brigade, effected a landing at Arroyo, on the south coast, almost opposite San Juan on the north coast, and began a forward movement on Guayama. The first real fight on Porto Rico soil was at this place. Enough ammunition was used by both the Spaniards and the Americans to annihilate each other, yet only three Americans were wounded and only one Spaniard killed and three wounded.

The Spaniards showed the degree of civilization to which they have attained by throwing the body of their dead soldier into a well from which a part of the town gets its water, evidently hoping to poison it.

Guayama is a city of 16,000 inhabitants, and next to Ponce is the most important town on the south side of the island. It is thirty-six miles east of Ponce. Arroyo is the seaport of the city, which is five miles inland.

General Brooke's troops had landed at Arroyo, and he wanted Guayama as a base of operations, it being the only town of large importance on the main road leading to the military road running from Ponce to San Juan. General Brooke ordered General Hains to occupy the town, and at 7 o'clock on the morning of August 5th the Fourth Ohio and Third Illinois Regiments were ordered out, the Ohio regiment being in the van.

It was known that there were some Spanish cavalry in the neighborhood, and so the troops proceeded cautiously along the road from Arroyo to within a mile of the city. The road is level to that point, and there were no signs of Spaniards anywhere along the route.

The last mile of the road runs through a cut in the mountain and up a steep hill. Before this point was reached the Third Illinois stopped, and Colonel Bennett was ordered to guard the crossroads leading to the rear of the city.

The advance guard of the Ohio regiment then entered the cut and had proceeded less than 100 yards when a hail of Spanish bullets on both sides from the mountain whistled over their heads. The guards being in very small force, fell back, firing as they retreated and the main body at once hurried forward, firing at a lively rate up the hillsides as

they advanced. A hundred yards further, just beyond a sharp turn in the road, they suddenly came upon a barricade that had been thrown across the road. The barricade had been made of sectional iron work, which had been filled in with sand. The Spaniards behind this defense were shooting at the rate of 100 shots a minute, but every shot was aimed too high, though the American troops were within hailing distance.

General Hains ordered deploying parties sent up the hills to flank the enemy. The road was lined on each side with barbed wire entanglements such as the Spaniards used at Santiago, but many of the troops carried machetes, with which they attacked the fences, disregarding the bullets, and in a few minutes cut their way through, and then 100 men made their way up the mountains on both sides of the road.

The firing line of our troops held its position and poured bullets into the barricade. The Spanish firing did not last long. In fact, it stopped in less time that it takes to tell of it, but what became of the Spaniards behind the barricade is a mystery. They disappeared as though they had been swallowed up. Not a single one of them was seen during the skedaddling act. The Ohio men kept peppering away for half an hour.

In the meantime the deployed force reached the hilltops on both sides of the road and began pouring a rattling fire down the mountain sides and ahead of their position on the hill. Our men then all advanced, firing as they went. For a half hour there was very little return. Then the Spaniards rallied and made a stand, but they were still unseen. It was in this rally that three of our men were wounded.

The stand made by the Spaniards was of very short duration. The deployers drove the enemy along the hills and the main body cleared the road.

At 11 A. M. the troops entered the town. For the last half mile there was very little shooting, but just as the town was reached there was a resumption of desultory firing, and at the same time an occasional shot came from the town itself. Every Spanish shot was answered by a volley from our men. This was kept up for a half hour, when our men on the hill saw a man on a roof in the upper part of the town waving a white shirt. A minute later a flag of truce came down the road, and its bearer said that the town surrendered unconditionally.

General Hains and his staff rode forward through the streets of the city. All of the houses were closed, and the place looked like a deserted town. Not a person was in sight. General Hains rode to the

public building, and by the time he got there the houses began to open. Everywhere heads were poked out of doors and quickly withdrawn.

They were poked out again in a moment and again withdrawn, but this time the withdrawal was much slower. The third time the heads stayed out, and were followed by shoulders and then bodies. Some one yelled in a stentorian voice: "Vivan los Americanos!" (Live the Americans!)

Then, as if by magic, the people came out and rushed toward the General and his staff, shouting the same words. Some prostrated themselves in the road and grabbed the Americans around the knees, while others threw their arms around the necks of the soldiers and kissed them, all the time shouting, "Vivan los Americanos." Their enthusiasm seemed unbounded, and the scene at the surrender of Ponce was eclipsed.

As soon as the Americans recovered from this attack General Hains ordered the Stars and Stripes to be hoisted over the public building, whereat there was great cheering and shouting. General Hains collected men and stationed them in every street entering the town and then sent companies out scouting.

They had hardly got started when a bombardment of the town was begun by the Spaniards, who had returned to the hills and poured shot down into the city regardless of whether their own people or the soldiers were hit. Luckily their aim was bad, and only one man was hit. The houses interfered with our men firing for some time, but they finally got where they could shoot, and gave the Spaniards a volley for every shot.

This lasted half an hour, with no sign of its diminishing, when General Hains ordered up two dynamite guns belonging to the Ohio men. These were aimed at the hills and each fired three shots. That settled the Spaniards. There wasn't a shot from them after the third shot from the dynamite guns.

It was then nearly 3 o'clock. The skirmish had lasted five hours and was a record breaker for scarcity of casualties.

While the Spaniards were shooting into their own town, Colonel Coit's Illinois men discovered some firing from a house on the outskirts. The place was surrounded and lead was poured into the house.

The fight was lively, but at last the Spaniards raised a white flag just as our men were about storming the house. Our men found six

Spanish regulars inside and took them off to the town jail and locked them up.

All the afternoon and night the demonstration of the people of the city and their welcome of our troops were continued. The citizens were mostly Spaniards, but they said they were glad the Spanish troops had gone and the Americans had come. The Spanish soldiers numbered about 500.

They had been preparing defenses for two weeks. General Hains remained in the town and sent out guards on all sides. There were no signs that the Spaniards had returned and all was quiet. The city band was playing "Yankee Doodle" and "Star Spangled Banner." Everybody was on the streets, and it was a time of jubilation.

General Miles' plan of campaign was to have four columns traverse the island from four different directions, driving all the Spanish forces into San Juan. Then, with his own army surrounding the city on three sides and the navy in the harbor, he would have the capital and the island of Porto Rico at his mercy.

The capture of Guayama by General Brooke's column was a part of this plan. He was then to swing around back of Cayey and Aibonito, while the column under General Wilson attacked these towns from the south. General Henry was sent to take Arecibo in the north, while General Schwan, on the extreme left, with a column of regulars, was sent to take Mayaguez and then join Henry at Arecibo. The command under General Roy Stone was used for reconnoitering.

Military critics have pronounced this a perfect plan of campaign, and its complete consummation was only prevented by receipt of the news that peace had been proclaimed.

In the whole war there has not been as pretty a fight as that which preceded the taking of Coamo by General Wilson. It was the only battle. Every move of an orthodox military combination was carried out without a hitch. Even the enemy, with the singular disposition to be accommodating which they have evinced throughout the war, played the losing end of the game to perfection.

General Wilson's plan was simple enough. It was an ordinary flank movement, such as Grant and Sherman used so successfully to slowly push back Lee and Johnston. For a week our scouting parties had ventured deep into the foothills where Coamo nestles, tracing roads and mountain paths. It was known that the strength of the Spanish garrison did not exceed 300. Wilson had 3,500, a troop of cavalry and

two full batteries. There was no doubt that the town could be taken easily by attack, but such an attack would leave the garrison, which was too strongly pressed, free to retreat to swell the force General Otego had been gathering to defend the pass through the mountains to Aibonito.

Wilson wanted to capture the garrison. He moved his headquarters suddenly from Ponce to Descalabrado River, where the Sixteenth Pennsylvania was encamped. Next day he personally reconnoitered the country between the Descalabrado River and Coamo. That afternoon he sent for Colonel Hulings.

"How are your men for mountain climbing?" he said.

"I guess they're all right," replied Hulings.

"Then strike camp to-night. Turn the enemy's right flank with the view of obtaining a position in his rear if possible."

At 5 o'clock Monday afternoon, August 15th, the Sixteenth quietly broke camp. The men carried only their rifles, ammunition belts, canteens and ponchos. Just as darkness fell the regiment left the military road and struck at a right angle into the hills to the northward. When well away from the main road Hulings halted, waiting for the moon to rise. The men, wrapped in their ponchos, threw themselves down to obtain a few hours' sleep.

Shortly after midnight the moon peeped over the chain of rugged peaks which obstructed the path of the army, and the order to march was given. Porto Rican guides led the way over paths so rough and narrow that the men could move only in single file. It was toilsome. Absolute silence was enjoined; no smoking was permitted lest the fitful flash of a match should betray the movement to the watchful Spanish outposts on the hills.

For hours the men toiled on. The officers were compelled to walk and led their horses. Creeks and rivulets were waded, lofty hills were climbed or skirted, yawning ravines were crossed. The men dripped with perspiration, although the night air was chilling.

Hulings had expected to reach the military road in the rear of Coamo by dawn, but the sun discovered him with several miles still to go. Fear of being too late acted as a spur to the men, and the thin column moved faster in the growing light.

Coamo awoke in peace. At dawn both General Wilson and General Oswald H. Ernst were in the saddle, and long before the shadows lifted

from the valleys the main body of the army was in motion to drive the enemy out of the town and into Hulings' net.

Two and a half miles from Coamo the troops were ordered to leave the main road, there being a possibility that it might be covered by a battery. The second division took the right, moving as if to flank the enemy's position from that side, while the Third Wisconsin pushed straight ahead parallel to the road. Each regiment deployed beautifully.

General Ernst and his staff climbed a high hill overlooking the entire valley. From there Coamo could be distinctly seen—a pretty hamlet, its colored tiled roofs forming a delightful contrast to the varying foliage of mango and flamboyan trees. A church, almost always the most prominent structure in a Spanish town, raised its white towers and yellow roof above a fringe of green leaves.

To the right and left the lines of the Second and Third Wisconsin crossed along through waving fields. First they scattered a line of skirmishers, their hats and blue shirts showing above the tall sugar cane.

Nearer than the village and off to the right was the blockhouse of Llamo de Coamo, situated on the road from Coamo to St. Isabel, and protected from assault by a deep ravine cut by the Coamo River. This blockhouse was the first place attacked.

There was a heavy, jarring rumble over the macadam of the military road. Anderson's battery came along at a sharp trot. At a turn in the road where the blockhouse came into view it halted. A passageway was cut through the hedges and the barbed wire, and the guns, leaving the road, wheeled into position on a knoll to the right. Two minutes later the fight opened.

A shell hummed its way across plantations, ravine and river and exploded a hundred yards short of the blockhouse.

"Make the range 1,650 yards," commanded Captain Anderson.

The second shell threw up a cloud of dust directly in front of the blockhouse. This established the range, and the battery began to fire rapidly, alternating impact shell with shrapnel. For a few minutes the Spanish returned the fire with Mausers, but as shell after shell crashed through the blockhouse they abandoned it and fell back toward Coamo. Soon flames leaped up from the roofs, and an hour later the fort was but a smoldering ruin.

The infantry was pressing rapidly forward meanwhile, the regi-

ments filing their way through fields and woods with heavy skirmish lines. The battery limbered up and galloped forward to another knoll, whence could be seen Coamo. General Wilson was wondering what had become of Hulings. Not a warlike sound came from the village, a mile and a half away. Had the garrison escaped? Wagers were made among officers that it had decamped during the night.

Suddenly from beyond the town came the rattle of musketry.

"That's Hulings," exclaimed General Ernst, exultantly.

A moment later the battery opened on the town. Shrapnel burst over the village. On pressed the Wisconsin regiments through barbed wire fences and across the deep bed of the Coamo River. Beyond the town the rifle fire continued steadily. Evidently Hulings was having a warm time.

At this juncture a party of war correspondents, managing with great difficulty to get their horses through the fences and across the river, the bridge having been destroyed, passed the troops and began a mad dash toward the village. Without thinking or caring what chances they took they spurred their horses forward at full speed. The road was crowded for some distance with troops, several of whom were overturned by the horses. Captain Breckinridge of the commissary department and the headquarters quartermaster, who should have been miles in the rear attending to the camp equipage, joined the newspaper light brigade, as did Captain Paget, of the British Army.

FIRST TO ENTER COAMO.

At the entrance to the town trenches had been dug across the road, and the streets were filled with trenches and barricades.

The streets were deserted except by a few people, who cried "Viva Americanos" in tremulous tones, and the shops were closed. Some frantically waved improvised flags, evidently under the impression they were in danger of immediate execution. Men nervously came with beer and wine as peace offerings.

It was learned the Spanish garrison had left only half an hour before, moving out along the main road. By this time the firing off in the direction where Hulings was supposed to be had ceased, and on the hilltop 500 yards away appeared a dozen soldiers of the Sixteenth Pennsylvania. Lieutenant Titus hastily manufactured a signal flag and wig-wagged that the few Spaniards in town had surrendered and

that the Americans had entered. Fifteen minutes later Company I of the Sixteenth marched into town from the north and took possession. The garrison, foiled in its attempt to escape, had surrendered.

In the military road over which Colonel Hulings and Major Windsor entered the city lay the body of Major Don Rafael Martinez, commander of the garrison, and three of his principal officers. They had been carried there by the Spanish Red Cross corps, which worked arduously to discover and relieve the wounded. Standing along the road looking disconsolately at the bodies of their officers were some 200 Spanish soldiers, guarded by two companies of Hulings' regiment. Near by "Camenra," a roadhouse, was pressed into service as a temporary hospital, and there the Spanish wounded were carried, corps from both companies doing the work.

The fight had been won. Success, thanks to the pluck of Major Martinez in remaining in the town so long, was complete. Hulings' flank movement came near failing to reach the town in time, owing to the obstructions on the night march. Had not General Martinez abandoned the town when he did he would have escaped.

It was well known in Coamo that the town was to be attacked on Tuesday by a largely superior force. All the citizens knew it and there is no reason to think that the commandant was more ignorant than they. He had 300; the Americans had more than ten times that number of better equipped troops, supported by twelve pieces of modern field artillery. Resistance could have but one result. There was no military justification for attempting to hold Coamo under the circumstances. Yet he did so.

Martinez knew that resistance was utterly hopeless. But Colonel San Martin had been particularly disgraced by Governor-General Macias for evacuating Ponce, and the several commanders of garrisons in the path of the American army were ordered to fight.

So Major Martinez kissed his young wife and children good-by and sent them into San Juan for safety. Then he called his officers together and told them that Spain required them to die defending Coamo. The officers did not flinch. Two of them, Captain Santo Lopez and Captain Jose Sancha Escante, shared the fate of Martinez and the glory of his death.

Martinez saw the blockhouse which defended the river destroyed by artillery to which he could not reply. Then his scouts brought word that an American column of double the garrison's strength was slowly

creeping around to his rear. Then Martinez knew that he was trapped and decided to go out and meet the enemy.

It is not indulging in heroics to say that Martinez committed military suicide. He rode in advance of his slender column until he sighted Hulings' men, who were immediately apprised of the enemy's presence by a volley. Soon bullets were flying like hail. Martinez, mounted upon a gray horse, rode up and down in front of his troops uttering encouraging words. He courted death.

Dozens of men of the Sixteenth made the daring officer, clad in full uniform, their target. The soldier's death, which Martinez sought, was not long coming. For a while he reeled in his saddle, maintaining his seat with evident difficulty. Then his horse went to his knees and Martinez slowly slid from the saddle a lifeless form.

Soon after he fell a white flag fluttered from a hedge, behind which the Spanish soldiers had concealed themselves, and the fight was ended. When Major Martinez was found five wounds, three of which were mortal, were discovered. His horse was shot in four places.

Coamo, which Martinez had defended at such cost, was taken. The Third Wisconsin met the Pennsylvania troops in the plaza and exchanged congratulations.

Inside the town all was confusion. The inhabitants were uncertain and nervous and the soldiers jubilant. Florence Santiago, the Alcalde, hastened to deliver the city government to General Ernst.

General Wilson arrived and a provost guard began to bring order out of chaos. Within an hour the troops had moved on through the town and encamped a mile beyond, near where Hulings had consummated his successful flank movement. Reassured, the citizens assembled in the streets and cheered the Americans. General Wilson congratulated Colonel Hulings and the Sixteenth.

The volunteer regiments behaved splendidly. They showed the steadiness and coolness of veterans. Our loss of seven wounded, all in the Sixteenth Pennsylvania, illustrates the luck of the Americans in this war.

Among the trophies of this engagement was a royal Spanish flag which was sent to President McKinley.

LAST FIGHT IN PORTO RICO.

The Eleventh Infantry, of General Schwan's regulars, found the Spaniards intrenched at Las Marias, and after a sharp skirmish drove

them back and out of the city of Mayaguez, with a loss of two privates killed and one officer and fourteen men wounded. The Spanish loss was thirty killed and wounded and fifty prisoners, among the latter the Spanish commander, Colonel De Soto.

Notification of the signing of the protocol reached Porto Rico just in time to prevent several battles which might have resulted in driving the Spaniards from the island.

A battle was narrowly averted at Aibonito. General Wilson succeeded in communicating with General Otego, the commander of the Spanish forces there. It was arranged that neither side should advance, and flags of truce fluttered from both the American and Spanish picket lines.

General Brooke eventually pursued the same plan at Guayama, which he had invested. Had it not been for the timely arrival of Lieutenant McLaughlin, of the signal corps, there would have been a battle at Guayama which would have given a different turn to the war in Porto Rico. Had the young signal officer arrived three minutes later shells from the field guns would have been screaming across Cavitas Valley. They would have been answered, too, for the indications were that the enemy was in strong force.

With his artillery General Brooke had taken the extreme advance. He had personally examined every position, and when the proper place was gained he had brought up his guns near the valley which lay between our men and the enemy. High ridges of rocks made natural fortifications, and here and there were open spaces which gave free play for the guns.

"We have him now," said General Brooke, "and the ball will be opened in just three minutes."

He had hardly finished speaking when there was a clattering of hoofs and a telegram was given to the commander. General Brooke read it and raised his hand as a signal to cease action.

"Stop the guns," he said.

Everyone standing near him was amazed.

The word to stop hostilities passed down the line. Some of the men howled with rage and disappointment. They had narrowly missed the fight of their lives.

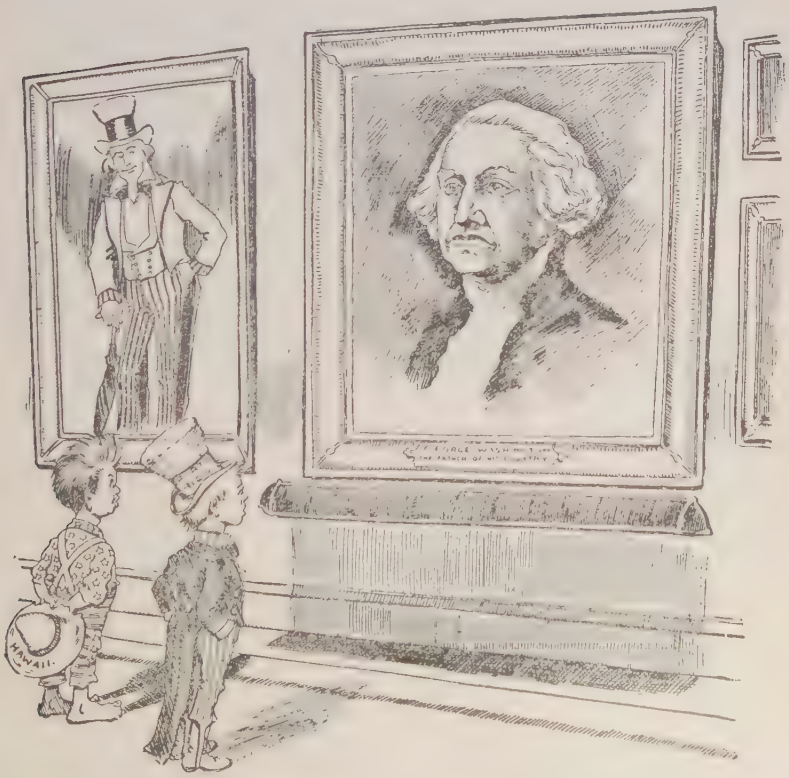
Many were of the opinion that General Brooke should have immediately sent a flag of truce to the enemy and apprised him of the fact that peace had been declared. General Brooke grimly remarked

that the enemy could find it out himself. He was prepared to give a warm reception to the Spanish if they advanced.

The General decided later, however, to give the enemy the benefit of the dispatches which he had received from General Miles. Colonel Richards was sent from the American side under a flag of truce. Between the hostile lines he met Colonel Cervera, whom he notified of the signing of the protocol. The Spaniards seemed to have an inkling of the peace negotiations, for an armistice was immediately agreed upon, and the troops went into camp to await the formal action of the government, which culminated in the peace treaty and the cession of the island to the United States.

The formal occupation of San Juan and the raising of the American flag in place of the Spanish emblem took place in October.

OVERHEARD IN THE NATIONAL ART GALLERY.



Porto Rico—"I reckon he must be our stepfather—eh, Hawaii?"—Minneapolis Journal.

CHAPTER XVIII.

ONCE FIGHTER, NOW GOVERNOR.

IT IS NOT wonderful when we look at our army and navy men that the war with Spain was so short and the victories successive and without an interruption. As an example, it is interesting to look into the record of such a man as Major-General Guy V. Henry, "Fighting Guy V.," as his men love to call him. He is now the military and civil Governor of Porto Rico, a slight, spare, one-eyed man, with a face honorably marked with many scars. As a Porto Rican puts it: "He is a small man, poof! small like my son, but his one eye, Madre de Dios! it is like a Mauser bullet when it strikes you."

A writer in the Chicago Inter Ocean says of him:

"Several months ago, while in Ponce, Porto Rico, I saw the General stand up in the quaint old plaza of the city and address, through an interpreter, a number of natives on the subject of good government and on the value of becoming honest, God-fearing citizens of the great republic. I also saw him hold a Sunday-school service in the same plaza, and, as he stood upon the steps of the kiosk in the center, with a Bible in his crippled hand, and told in simple words the story of the Christ, I noticed a number of American soldiers, roughly uniformed, stop and listen with wondering interest. As the crowd dispersed after the affair was over I heard one old bearded Sergeant, who also bore marks of long service in the army, turn to a comrade, and, with a slap of his brawny hand, exclaim:

"'I fought under that man out in the Black Hills in '74. He's a scrapper, every inch of him, and he's the best officer that ever drew a saber, bar none. And he knows when a good word is better than a good bullet, too. He ain't much to look at, but you can bet every scar he's got has a story.'

GUY HENRY'S CRIPPLED HAND.

"And the Sergeant was right. The stories of those scars are written not only in the records of the United States, but also in the hearts of

every man, officer or private, that served with Guy V. Henry in the Indian campaigns of the '70s. This is the story of the crippled hand that held the Bible that day in Ponce:

"In the fall of 1874, when the Cheyenne Indians were setting the frontier ablaze in the northern part of Dakota, Colonel Henry, then in command of several troops of cavalry, came upon a village of the enemy nestled among the hills. There was a brief but decisive fight, and the Indians fled toward the Canadian boundary, almost one hundred miles distant.

"Forty-eight hours after the start a fierce sleet and hail-storm sprang up, the wind sweeping across the plains with the fury of a hurricane. It finally became so violent that the trail was lost, and the troops rode blindly through the blizzard. Presently one of the subordinate officers ventured to ask if it would not be well to camp in the shelter of a rise of ground until the inclement weather had abated.

"Colonel Henry shook his head. 'No,' he replied firmly, 'we will keep on until we capture the Indians or run them to the boundary line.' Drawing down his rough fur cap, he urged his horse steadily onward at the head of the straggling troops. Finally a brief rest was called, and, after many failures, a fire was started and coffee made. When orders were given to resume the march, the surgeon accompanying the expedition went to Colonel Henry and reported that five of the troopers were suffering with badly frozen feet.

"'Help me off with this glove,' replied the intrepid cavalry leader, extending his left hand. The surgeon wonderingly obeyed, and, as he touched the flesh under the gauntlet, he cried: 'It is stiff. Your hand is frozen, sir.'

"'Mount, men,' ordered Colonel Henry, calmly. And as the cavalcade prepared to obey the command it was found necessary to assist him to his saddle. On through the snow and sleet, on until the wintry sun rising over the eastern hills, proclaiming the coming of day, rode the little party of soldiers. There were many stragglers, many who lurched in their saddles, many who rested benumbed and almost unconscious upon the necks of their mounts, but none failed to follow that stern figure riding in advance. When day finally broke a number of black specks were seen moving over the crest of a ridge a mile in advance.

"'They are the Cheyennes,' exclaimed Colonel Henry. 'And that ridge marks the boundary line between Canada and the United States. We can go no farther.'

"The memory of the retreat back to shelter will be as a blank page to most of the party. Several days later the troops stumbled painfully into the welcome gates of a fort, bearing with them twenty-one of their number frozen almost to death. Colonel Henry kept command until he saw his men in safety again, then he took to his bed and hovered between life and death for many weary weeks, finally arising with his left hand crippled, and his constitution so broken that he was reported as unfit for further duty. But he was in harness again after a brief rest.

THE LOSING OF AN EYE.

"When the committee of Porto Ricans met General Henry in the palace at San Juan, the members saw that the face of their new Governor bore many scars. There was a bullet hole through each cheek, the bridge of the nose was broken, and the left eye seemed dull and colorless. To them it was possibly a disfigurement, but to the men who served with Henry in '76 each scar spoke eloquently of a thrilling episode in that famous expedition against the Sioux in the Big Horn and Yellowstone country, when the 'troopers of the yellow stripes' taught the hostiles a lasting lesson.

"In that expedition Colonel Guy V. Henry was in charge of the Second Battalion of the Third Cavalry, which formed part of General Crook's command. One June morning, while the troops were camping for breakfast in a little ravine, the out pickets rushed back with the startling announcement that the Sioux were coming in force. There was barely time to sound 'Boots and saddles' when the heights about the valley swarmed with the savages. Within twenty minutes a regular pitched battle was in progress, the Indians, of whom there were several thousand, coming down from the ridge in a series of desperate charges.

"During the height of the combat one portion of the American line under Captain Vroom was pushed out beyond its support, and was being punished severely, the hostiles getting between it and the main body. Colonel Henry, seeing the peril threatening his brother officer, sent his command pell-mell to the rescue. Just as they swept upon the Indians with uplifted sabers, a flying bullet struck Colonel Henry in the face, tearing through both cheeks, breaking the bridge of the nose, and completely severing the left optic nerve.

"The force of the wild rush carried him on, but he was seen to sway in the saddle. A trooper near him called out hoarsely, 'Are you struck, sir?' Gripping the pommel tightly with one hand Colonel Henry tried

to wave his sword. 'On, on!' he gasped. 'Charge ——.' Down under the galloping hoofs of the combatants he lurched, and in an instant he was lost to sight in the swirling dust.

"The loss of their leader caused a temporary panic among the soldiers, but they soon rallied, and, after driving off the Indians, they searched for their Colonel. He was found at last, covered with blood, but as they tenderly picked him up they saw that life still remained in the bruised body. He was placed upon a blanket in the shade and everything possible done to aid him. It was then that one of the other officers condoled with him, saying: 'Colonel, this is too bad. It is too bad!' And it was then that the gallant Henry, suffering untold agony and barely able to articulate, whispered simply:

"'It's nothing, Jack. It's what we are here for.'

"It was long before he recovered, but when he finally returned to active service he carried with him the indelible proofs of gallantry and daring in actual battle. The same quiet heroism carried him through weeks of weary battling with the torturing pangs of a Porto Rican fever, a struggle which sapped his strength and wrung his soul—after which he quietly and calmly replied to his physician's orders to leave at once: 'No. Here I stay, where I have been sent.'

BORN AND BRED A FIGHTER.

"It seems peculiarly fitting that the Indian fighter and soldier should have as his birthplace an army post in the very heart of the Western frontier, Fort Smith, Indian Territory, and that his father, Major William Seaton Henry, of the Third United States Infantry, should be engaged in a war with the savages at that time, March 9, 1839; and it is also appropriate that a man who was destined to become the military and civil Governor of a foreign territory won by the sword should be the grandson of one who was Vice-President of the United States and twice Governor of New York State, Daniel D. Tompkins, and also grandson of a former Secretary of the Navy and Judge of the Supreme Court, Smith Thompson.

"He was fortunate enough to graduate from West Point at the very outbreak of the Civil War. He was assigned as a Second Lieutenant to the First United States Artillery, and served with distinction in that regiment until he was made Colonel of the Fortieth Massachusetts Infantry in the fall of 1863. He continued throughout the war with that command, being present at many of the most important battles."

CHAPTER XIX.

THE STORY OF PRIVATE JOE ERTZ.

JOSEPH ERTZ, private in the Eleventh United States regulars, is a typical American soldier, full of pluck and modesty. His story is that of a man in one of the humble walks of life who is as proud of his country as the greatest General in her service. When the call came he answered, went to the war, and, returning, has gone back to work just as if his neighbors did not look upon him as a hero. Joe was given up for dead after the troops came back from Porto Rico. There was no trace of him other than that he was numbered among the missing. His comrades said that he had been killed by a Spaniard. Some of them had seen him die. None had witnessed his burial, for they hurried away from his corpse in the fighting. The days passed and there were no tidings of Joe. Summer faded into Fall and the chill Winter came. Thanksgiving and Christmas had passed and Joe's family mourned him as dead. Often they thought of him, but were proud in their grief that he had died for his country.

It was a bleak afternoon in January, the snow was flying and the Ertz family were seated at dinner, that is, Joe's sisters, for he is an orphan. They live in West Springfield, Mass. A sister was speaking of her loved brother: "Oh, that Joe could be here," she said, when the door opened and in stepped a soldier. Thinner and paler than when he left and yet with the same light in his eyes, there stood Joe. God had given him back from the dead. He was in his sisters' arms, while they cried and laughed and cried again for joy. The holiday merry-making native to the Germans was but postponed after all, and there was feasting and dancing and the neighbors came with their congratulations, but best of all is Joe's own story of his experiences.

JOE'S STORY.

"You see," said Joe, in talking it over, "I am not a great hand to write, but I did send a letter home after the fight and I had got out of

the hospital, but as things were, in some way or other they didn't get it, and so it was quite a surprise to my folks when I walked in upon them.

"Born in Albany, N. Y. My father was a soldier for the Kaiser and sang 'Der Wacht am Rhein' with the soldiers of the Crown Prince in the Franco-Prussian War; fought all through it, and then came to this country. He lived in Albany when I was born. We came to West Springfield in '90.

"Now, you see, that was just it. I was set thinking about this war by the remembrance of what my father did, and I wanted to go. Many a night I have sat on the brake, atop a box car, thinking it over. That's been my work always, braking on the railroad. I was a little while down in Arkansas, but after that I came back to Massachusetts and worked in the New York, New Haven & Hartford Yard, and then I came here and was running on the Pittsfield freight from Springfield west, when this war broke out.

"But I am afraid that Spaniard has given me something that will knock me out from any freight braking hereafter. I don't suppose I could jump a car now."

HIS ENLISTMENT.

Joe puffed away silently for a few minutes, and then resumed: "You understand that I hadn't made up my mind; till all of a sudden my chum, here, Burton Smith, started for New York City with the purpose of enlisting in the regulars. That settled it. I had this hand."

Here Joe held up his right, presenting a curious foreshortening of palm and back, evidence of an old injury. He nodded to my inquiring glance.

"Got that shackling cars," he said, "when the jaws came together. I thought that maybe it would shut me out, and so I went down to Boston to see Captain Quinton, Major he is now, I understand.

"Well, the Captain just laughed at me when I showed him the hand.

"'Crook your finger all right, can't you?' he said. I showed I could. 'Got a good pull on it?' 'Sure,' said I. Then he punched me two or three times in the body and back. 'You'll do,' he said. That made me happy. I was accepted, went to Albany, New York, and there was enlisted with about 400 recruits for the Eleventh United States Infantry. We were sent South to Tampa, Florida, where we joined the regiment.

"It is one of the oldest commands in the service. Colonel De Russey was in command, and it was said that it was the first time in more than fourteen years that the whole regiment had been together. There were four or five companies from Arizona; some had been down in Arkansas and others were scattered from post to post, some in New Mexico. I was assigned to Company F, Captain Emery. He was a fine man. What I liked especially was the way in which he looked after his men.

"Why, the company that I joined had $1,600 in its company fund. We bought whatever we wanted in the way of supplies.

FOUGHT IN SKIRMISHES.

"On the start we were with the Third United States Artillery and the Fifth Cavalry. I got to Tampa about the 17th of July and was there for two weeks. Our regiment sailed about the 29th or 30th and we went to Porto Rico.

"I was in three skirmishes, at Yauco, near Ponce, on the way to Annasco, and at Homoguayras.

"There are just two Generals that I believe in above everybody else," said Joe Ertz with emphasis. "One is General Miles. He was a soldier. I wouldn't allow any man to call that man down when I was present. I believe we owe everything to him, the way he looked after us. He was a man, if there ever was one, and we all loved him; and the other was General Schwan, who commanded the brigade I was in after we landed in Porto Rico. He was all right and we boys liked him. I liked the way the regular officers talked to us. Our Captain, he put everything just as it was and advised us for what was our own good. He told us what we had to expect, and put it that way, that it made no difference to him, but if we didn't observe the regulations we would be punished, and there was no need of it if a man looked after himself.

"Well, after we landed in Porto Rico we were ordered to make an advance under General Schwan, and we went ahead. Troop A of the Third Cavalry led the way; then Companies A and C of the Eleventh as advance guard. We had our flankers out. F was in the main column, while G of the Eleventh had the wagon train. The first troops we encountered were the Spanish volunteers. We struck them between midnight and dawn. They did not bother us much and we soon drove them, following up rapidly, but next we ran up against the

Alfonso XIII. Regiment of Spanish regulars, and they gave us a stiff fight, I can tell you. It lasted for fully five hours and it was no child's play.

"That was at Homoguayras, and when we finally drove them they retired slowly, giving us a steady running fire all the way. Of course, as they gave back they uncovered their dead and wounded, and very soon our line passed over them so that they were in our possession. Those wounded Spaniards were singing out all over the field, 'Aqua, much aqua,' in a way you couldn't resist.

SPANISH GRATITUDE.

"I didn't know anything about Spanish, but our Captain told us that it was water they wanted. Pretty soon Colonel De Russey sent down an order for a detail from the companies to look after the Spanish wounded, and Captain Emery of my company ordered First Sergeant Ruby and Sergeant Jennings to take a squad of men with full canteens to go to their relief. I was one of the detail. My canteen was full and I started for a fellow who was sitting up against a brace for his back. He was shot through the body, but he had strength enough to swing his rifle, as I very soon learned. He was not a very large man, about 130 pounds, apparently. All Spaniards looked the same to us, but I wasn't looking for trouble. He was hollering for water and I wanted to give him some from my canteen.

"Now, I can't talk Spanish, and I didn't know how to make him understand me, but I did what I thought was the next best thing. I took the stopper out of my canteen and shook it, so that the contents were spilled, and he could see what I intended. I had only the best wishes to make him comfortable, but just as soon as I came up to him, before it was possible to realize his intention, he clubbed that rifle of his and swung it with all his force at me.

"It crashed against my abdomen. I fell back like a log, with the senses completely knocked out of me. I knew no more after that until I came to consciousness hours after and found myself in an old deserted sugar mill, in our rear, which had been converted into a field hospital."

AMERICAN REVENGE.

"What became of the Spaniard?" said I.

"Oh," said Joe, "our First Sergeant. Ruby, was a veteran. He had

seen twenty-five years in the service. He spoke to the boys. They finished him."

"The Spaniard?" I interpolated.

Joe gravely nodded.

"They thought I was dead, when they came for me, but I was picked up and taken back to the hospital, where, seeing some signs of life still left, I was taken care of, and later came to a realization where I was. From there after the fighting was ended I was put in division hospital, and for weeks I lay there unable to move.

"As soon as I was able I sent notice to the folks at home, but it seems they didn't get it, and by and by I suppose the story was sent home how I was struck down and believed to have been picked up for dead. I began to get better in the hospital, and I didn't want to go home then. I had enlisted for three years and I liked the service and I liked my regiment. I wanted to see it through. If it hadn't been for Dr. Wilcox, our Surgeon-Major, I do not believe I would be here talking to you. Ah, he was a man; no contract surgeon about him. He was a regular, brought up in the army, and as long as I live I can never forget him or his kindness to me. If I can ever serve that man I want to be able to do it," he said with striking earnestness.

"Well," continued Joe, "I wanted to get back to the boys. I was feeling first rate and so they discharged me from the hospital and let me go back to the company, but I had to go to the doctor to be trussed up. I was doing my duty regularly, however, and as a matter of fact I had been off for thirty-six hours on provost guard with my company. I had just come off when I got word that the doctor wanted to see me. I went at once to his quarters, and he said: 'Ertz, I have got your discharge here.' Well, sir, you could have knocked me down with a feather.

" 'Major,' says I, 'I don't want to be discharged. I am all right, I am doing duty. I had rather stay here.' 'But how can you?' said he. 'I cannot always be here to strap you up, and who will do it for you? You will have to give up all further service,' said he. I saw it then, and I tell you, sir, that there never was a sorrier day to me than when I had to leave the old regiment.

HIS DISCHARGE.

"I was discharged at Mayaguez, January 1, 1899, as you can see."

Joe went down into the recesses of his inner consciousness and

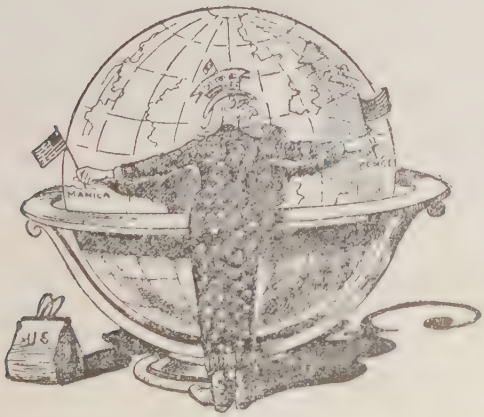
produced his United States pocket army regulations. There at the end was his record clear:

"Joseph G. Ertz.—Enlisted July 1, 1890, for three years, first enlistment. In the engagement near Homguraras, Porto Rico, August 10, 1898. The Porto Rican expedition from July 23, 1898, to January 1, 1899, serving during the Spanish-American War of 1898. Discharged at Mayaguez, Porto Rico, on certificate of disability, January 1, 1899."

"I never applied for that," he said sadly. "It was in the doctor's hands three days before he gave it to me. He knew.

THE HOME-COMING.

"So then I came home, and then when I walked in upon them all here I surprised them, as I say. They had heard nothing from me for so long. My father is dead, and I have been making my home with my sisters here in West Springfield. They believed that I must have died in the service. You see that there was no report from me, and I went directly from the hospital back to duty with my company."



A long reach, but his arms are equal to the emergency.—Boston Globe.

CHAPTER XX.

BATTLE OF MALATE.

FIRST LAND FIGHT IN THE PHILIPPINES—A MIDNIGHT ATTACK DURING A HEAVY STORM—HEROISM OF A CHAPLAIN.

AMERICAN troops in the Philippines received their first baptism of fire in the trenches at Malate on the night of July 31, 1898.

From the time of landing and the establishment of Camp Dewey, the brigade commanded by General Francis V. Greene was the focus of the active land campaign. On Friday morning, July 29th, a battalion consisting of the First Colorado, under Lieutenant-Colonel McCoy, with four guns of the Utah Battery, commanded by Captain Young, grandson of the Mormon prophet, occupied the line fifty yards in advance of the insurgents between the beach and Camino Real, and 1,300 yards from a formidable earthwork situated at the southern end of Malate, the foreign residential quarter of Manila. After sixteen hours of continuous labor the work of intrenchment was completed, the enemy not firing a shot until the Americans indulged in sharpshooting.

The American trenches were thrown forward to displace the insurgents, who were considered untrustworthy. They extended from the beach half a mile toward Pasay, where General Norial's headquarters were located. All was quiet on Saturday and on Sunday, until late at night, when the Spaniards attacked the American intrenchments with a severe enfilading fire.

Between the American extreme right and the insurgent barracks at Pasay was about half a mile of bamboo swamp interspersed with mango trees, which the insurgents were supposed to cover, and had covered theretofore.

There had been some desultory firing from the insurgent guns, to

which the Spaniards replied at intervals, the insurgents then retiring to Pasay, leaving the American right uncovered.

Colonel Hawkins, of the Pennsylvanians, had thrown three companies—D, E, and K—outside the trenches to cover the right of Companies A, H. C and E, which held the trenches down to the beach, with Utah's Company B lying as a reserve back along Camino Real toward Camp Dewey.

A tropical storm was raging at the time, the lightning flashing, the thunder roaring and the rain falling in torrents. Intense darkness reigned, which concealed the movements of the enemy, while the noise of the elements prevented them from being heard and even drowned the sounds of the firing later on.

At 11:30 o'clock the Spanish front opened fire on the American right, drawing the Pennsylvanians' fire outside the trenches, thus getting their position. Thence from the dense bamboo thicket, 250 yards to the American right, there blazed the fire of 2,000 Mausers, while the Malate batteries sent shrapnel shrieking in upon the American works, and from the front came the galling fire of Nordenfelds.

While the Spaniards swept Camino Real the insurgent batteries on the Pasay side remained ominously silent, protected by the thickets and covered by darkness.

The Spaniards attempted to rush on the American right. The plan apparently was to double troops up on the beach and sweep across the flats onto the camp.

Company D, of the Tenth Pennsylvania Volunteers, cut off from the main body, fought its way back. The Spaniards repeatedly advanced within sixty yards of the American intrenchments, but fell back before the steady fire of the volunteers.

A shell from Malate burst one of the Utah guns, and the volunteer battery's position rapidly was becoming untenable when Colonel Hawkins dispatched a messenger to the camp for re-enforcements. He struck the Third Artillery.

Major O'Hart, without awaiting orders, hurried two batteries into action as infantry to the trenches. The Pennsylvania troops had four rounds per man when succored. Major O'Hart sent information to General Greene.

General Greene called Camp Dewey to arms and dispatched the California and Colorado regiments to the assistance of those under fire.

By this time the firing, heavy and continuous, vastly different from

the usual outpost shooting of the Spaniards and natives, had aroused the camp, and the call to arms was sounded at midnight.

The First Battalion of the First California Volunteers, closely followed by the remaining battalions, marched to the front cheering. They crossed the muddy fields in the pitiless rain. Going down Camino Real they met insurgents running away, firing as they ran. The California First Battalion was thrown immediately forward in the trenches, and the Krag-Jorgensen rifles of the regulars began their deadly work.

The Second California Battalion deployed to the right, holding the line to Pasay, the Third being in reserve, with the Colorado men in the rear.

Not one insurgent was found in the trenches.

For three hours the Spaniards maintained a galling enfilading fire, but they shot high, making a veritable hell of the second line of intrenchments, held by the Second California Battalion.

The Spanish fire gradually slackened toward morning. At daylight the garrison retired behind sandbag intrenchments at Malate. Only the sharp bark of the rifles of the American sharpshooters picking off the Spaniards was heard occasionally. That ceased after sunrise, when the weary troops were relieved and the recovery of the dead began.

The Spaniards carried off their dead as they retreated. None was found on the field, but their loss was 300 killed and 1,000 wounded, while the Americans lost but 10 killed and 38 wounded. The ground over which the Spaniards charged was clotted with Spanish blood. The attacking force numbered 3,000 men.

The Astor Battery did not go into action, as its gun cartridges were damaged in transfer from transports to the beach. The men were compelled to lie in camp and fume while the fighting proceeded.

The insurgents rendered no assistance, but retreated on the first shot. It is believed that General Aguinaldo, aware of the Spanish intentions, moved his men away.

On August 1st the Spaniards made two weak attacks, but were easily repulsed. On August 2d they made another attack, when one was killed and eleven wounded.

Following these engagements efforts were made to secure the surrender of Manila without further bloodshed. Knowing that the influence of the Archbishop of Manila was paramount, Father William D. McKinnon, Chaplain of the First California, sought an interview with

him through the medium of the Belgian Consul, and in keeping his appointment displayed the qualities of a hero.

Several engagements made with the Consul to carry Father McKinnon across the bay in a launch were not kept, and finally the Consul intimated that he would meet the father on the Malate lines, showing the Belgian flag to indicate where to cross.

Father McKinnon was on hand, but the flag was not shown. He went forward, however, and as he walked along the beach the Spaniards opened fire on him, but he was uninjured, although one bullet passed through his clothes.

The priest walked bravely forward and was met by two Captains, who escorted him to Malate fortress. Father McKinnon, not speaking Spanish, communicated with them in Latin, and was escorted to Archbishop Mozaleda's palace, where he was received cordially.

The Archbishop stated that he was and always had been anxious for the restoration of peace and would do all in his power to secure a cessation of hostilities. He did not think Manila would be surrendered without a fight. The Spaniards in the city were starving, but nevertheless he expected General Jaudenes to make a last desperate effort.

The Archbishop denied most emphatically the authorship of a circular ascribed to him exhorting Spaniards to resist the Yankee invaders to the last drop of blood. As a man of God he said he could not have given utterance to such sentiments, and that he always had been an apostle of peace.

He said the Spanish flag still flew, and if the Americans wanted the city they must capture it.

After this interview Father McKinnon, in his carriage, was driven along Luneta and escorted across the lines by Spanish officers. This incident closed all attempts to secure peace without further bloodshed, and General Merritt and Admiral Dewey prepared to take Manila by force.

CHAPTER XXI.

MERRITT'S VICTORY AT MANILA.

COMBINED LAND AND SEA ATTACK WHICH RESULTED IN THE SURRENDER OF THE PHILIPPINE CAPITAL.

NEWSPAPERS of Manila on August 5th published news that Captain-General Augusti had been superseded by Segundo Cabo don Fermin Jaudenes Alvarez, and referred in terms of contempt to the Yankees.

On August 7th Admiral Dewey and General Merritt, acting jointly, notified General Jaudenes that they might attack the city forty-eight hours after the receipt of their note to him, and gave him an opportunity to remove all noncombatants. This joint notification was carried by Lieutenant Armitage, of Her Majesty's ship Immortalite.

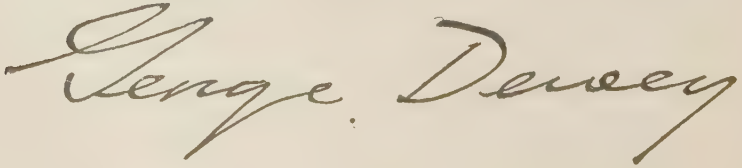
Following is a copy of the letter sent by General Merritt and Admiral Dewey to General Jaudenes:

"To the General-in-Chief Commanding the Spanish forces at Manila:

"Sir: We have the honor to notify Your Excellency that operations of the land and naval forces of the United States against the defenses of Manila may begin at any time after the expiration of forty-eight hours from the receipt by you of this communication, or sooner if made necessary by attack on your part.

"This notice is given to afford you an opportunity to remove all noncombatants from the city. Yours respectfully,

"Major-General U. S. A., Commanding.



"Rear Admiral U. S. N., Commanding."

To this letter General Jaudenes replied as follows:

"Manila, August 7th.—Gentlemen: I have the honor to inform your excellencies that at 12:30 to-day I received the notice with which you favored me, that after forty-eight hours have elapsed you may begin operations against this fortified city, or at an earlier hour if the forces under your command are attacked by mine.

"As your notice was sent for the purpose of providing safety for noncombatants, I give thanks to your excellencies for the humane sentiments you show, and state that finding myself surrounded by insurrectionary forces, I am without a place of refuge for the increased number of wounded, sick, women and children now lodged within these walls. Respectfully, and kissing the hands of your excellencies,

"FEROIN JAUDENES."

Foreign warships with refugees were moved out of the harbor on the morning of August 9th. A small party of foreigners, chiefly British, remained in the suburban port.

The Concord and Petrel lay off the mouth of the Pasig so as to prevent any vessels escaping, but no action occurred until August 13th, the delay being to allow the American troops to extend their front on the right of the line.

Notwithstanding the fact that the Spanish made a serious resistance against the advance of the right wing of the American force, it could not have been difficult to foresee that a surrender would follow a display by the land forces to satisfy Spanish honor, nor has it been a well-kept secret that the Captain-General practically suggested the manner in which the American troops should advance to prevent loss of life on both sides. At first it was not intended to attack the trenches, but quietly to advance after the bombardment had ceased.

At the last moment, however, the programme was changed and orders were issued for the land battery to open fire simultaneously with the fleet, and for an advance to be made as soon as it was considered practicable to assault the Spanish trenches. The reason for this change of plan is not yet apparent, but considerable loss of life resulted.

General Anderson placed his division, according to directions from General Merritt. There were eight battalions of the First Brigade under General McArthur in the fighting line on the right, with three

battalions in reserve, while seven battalions of the Second Brigade, under General Greene, were in the trenches across the Calle road to the seashore, three others forming a reserve.

The troops left the camp at 6:30 in a heavy thunderstorm. They carried 300 rounds of ammunition per man, and two days' cooked rations.

Shortly after 8:45 the fleet got under way with flags mastheaded. At 9 o'clock the Olympia led the way, attended by the Raleigh and the Petrel, while the Calloa, under Lieutenant Tappan, and the launch Barcolo crept close inshore in the heavy breakers.

Perfect quiet prevailed in the lines on both sides as the great ships cleared for action, silently advanced, sometimes hidden by rain squalls. The Monterey, with the Baltimore, Charleston and Boston, formed the reserve.

At 9:35 a sudden cloud of smoke, green and white against the stormy sky, completely hid the Olympia, a shell screamed across two miles of turbulent water and burst near the Spanish fort at Malate San Antonio de Abad. Then the Petrel and Raleigh and the active little Calloa opened a rapid fire directed toward the shore end of the intrenchments. In the heavy rain it was difficult to judge the range, and the shots at first fell short, but the fire soon became accurate and shells rendered the fort untenable, while the four guns of the Utah battery made excellent practice of the earthworks and swamp to the east of the fort. The Spaniards replied with a few shells.

Less than half an hour after the bombardment began General Greene decided that it was possible to advance, although the signals to cease firing were disregarded by the fleet, being probably invisible on account of the rain. Thereupon six companies of the Colorado regiment leaped over their breastworks, dashed into the swamp and began volley firing from the partial shelter of low hedges within 300 yards of the Spanish lines. A few moments later the remaining six companies moved along the seashore, somewhat covered by a sand ridge formed by an inlet under the outworks of the fort, and at 11 o'clock occupied this formidable stronghold without loss.

McCoy hauled down the Spanish flag and raised the Stars and Stripes amid wild cheers along the line.

Meanwhile the fleet, observing the movement of the troops along the beach, withheld its fire. The bombardment had lasted exactly an hour and a half. An hour later General Greene and his staff proceeded

along the beach, still under a hot infantry fire from the right, where the Eighteenth Regulars and the Third Regular Artillery were engaging the enemy, and directed the movement for an advance into Malate. The vicinity of the fort was uncomfortable on account of numbers of sharpshooters in the buildings on both sides, 200 yards distant. The forward movement was therefore hastened, and in a few minutes the outskirts of the suburb were well occupied and the sharpshooters were driven away.

As the Californians under Colonel Smith came up the beach their band played the national air, accompanied by the whistling of Mauser bullets, and during the sharpshooting continued to encourage the men with inspiring music. Each regiment carried its colors into action. There was considerable street fighting in the suburbs of Malate and Ermita, but the battalion of Californians pushed into the Luneta, a popular promenade within two hundred yards of the moat of the citadel. Then the white flag was hoisted at the southwest corner of the walled town. General Greene, with a few members of his staff, galloped along the Luneta, under a sharp scattering fire from the houses near the beach and parleyed with an officer, who directed him along to the gate, further east.

At this moment the Spanish forces, retreating from Santa Ana, came into view, fully 2,000 strong, followed by insurgents who had eluded General McArthur's troops, and now opened fire for a brief period. The situation was awkward if not critical, both sides being slightly suspicious of treachery. The Spanish troops lining the citadel ramparts, observing the insurgents' action, opened fire on the Californians, killing one and wounding three. The confusion, however, soon ceased by the advance of the retreating Spaniards to the esplanade, when General Greene ordered them to enter the citadel.

Soon a letter was brought from the Captain-General requesting the commander of the troops to meet him for consultation.

General Greene immediately entered with Adjutant-General Bates. Meanwhile, according to arrangement, the moment the white flag was shown General Merritt, who occupied the steamer Zafiro as temporary corps headquarters, sent General Whittier, with Flag Lieutenant Brumby, ashore to meet the Captain-General and discuss first a plan of capitulation. General Whittier found the officials much startled by the news that the attack was still vigorously continuing along the whole line, the American troops even threatening the citadel.

All available Spanish troops were immediately massed in the vicinity of the palace, awaiting the succession of events, concerning which a certain degree of anxiety was evident.

General Merritt entered with his staff at 3 o'clock. The situation was then better understood, and a conference with General Jaudenes was held. The terms agreed on may be outlined as follows:

"An agreement for the capitulation of the Philippines.

"A provision for disarming the men who remain organized under the command of their officers, no parole being exacted.

"Necessary supplies to be furnished from the captured treasury funds, any possible deficiency being made good by the Americans.

"The safety of life and property of the Spanish soldiers and citizens to be guaranteed as far as possible.

"The question of transporting the troops to Spain to be referred to the decision of the Washington government, and that of returning their arms to the soldiers to be left to the discretion of General Merritt.

"Banks and similar institutions to continue operations under existing regulations, unless these are changed by the United States authorities."

The terms of capitulation were formally signed by the American commanders, General Greene, Colonel Whittier, Colonel Crowder and Captain Lawbecton, and the Spanish commanders, Colonels San Jose Maria Laguen, Felin Don Carlos Reye and General Don Nicholas de la Pena y Cuellas.

Lieutenant Brumby, of the flagship Olympia, immediately after the terms of capitulation had been signed, hurried off to lower the Spanish flag—in reality to lower all Spain's flags in the Philippines by taking down one. He was accompanied by two signal men from the Olympia.

This little party found its way after great difficulty into Fort Santiago in the northern portion of the walled city.

There a large Spanish flag was flying. Grouped about it were many Spanish officers. Brumby's presence there in the victorious uniform attracted a crowd from the streets.

They hissed as he approached to haul down the flag. Then the Stars and Stripes rose in place of the other.

Many of those present wept bitterly as the flag of the victorious stranger climbed into place above the fort.

Fearing that the crowd might lower "Old Glory," Lieutenant

Brumby asked an American infantry officer to move up a detachment to guard it. Fortunately, he met a company coming up with a band.

The infantrymen presented arms and the band played "The Star-Spangled Banner," which lent some eclat to the ceremony.

The conduct of the Spaniards was disgraceful after the capitulation. The gunboat Cebu was brought down the river, with the Spanish flag flying, and was set on fire at the mouth of the passage. A party of Americans boarded and hoisted the Stars and Stripes. They tried fruitlessly to save three launches and several boats, which were also destroyed.

Our troops quietly occupied the city on both sides of the Pasig, sleeping in the streets throughout the night of August 13th, which was a wet one and made the strange conditions doubly disagreeable.

Yet the conduct of the American troops was beyond praise. It was simply admirable. They fraternized good-humoredly with the Spaniards and natives.

A group of regulars squatted in Escolta street, one of the principal thoroughfares, edifying the great crowd which had formed about them with tuneful plantation ditties.

Our ships which were engaged cruised freely at dead low water inside a line which, on a British admiralty chart, is marked "three fathoms," although the Olympia was drawing twenty-four feet. As a matter of fact, her navigator, Lieutenant Calkins, during her stay here, carefully surveyed the water along the city front.

The Callao went within rifle range while covering the flank of the troops as they advanced. The services of Lieutenant Tappan, who is her commander, will doubtless receive special mention in future.

The Monterey was not called upon to try her guns, but undoubtedly her presence and the boldness with which she was navigated within easy range of the city, had considerable influence on the Spaniards in their decision to capitulate.

As the fleet had raked the position at Malate, the Colorados, supported by the Eighteenth Regiment and the Utah Battery, swept it with the deadliest of fires.

General Greene, with the left wing, swept along upon the trenches before Malate. General McArthur led the right wing, with the Astor Battery, which took up a position on the right of the Pasig, and did gallant work.

An instance of this was when a Spanish blockhouse was carried

by men using their revolvers. The only rapid-fire gun in the line was silenced by this gallant advance.

Three men of the Astor Battery were killed.

The hardest fighting of the day was done at a point on the right wing where the guns of the fleet under Dewey could give no assistance.

The Spaniards fell back before the charging Coloradoans, who followed them closely, giving them no rest until the position was ours and the American flag was raised by the Californians, who had been charging with the Coloradoans.

The Californians, who were subjected to a galling fire from Spanish sharpshooters in houses on the right, moved past the Coloradoans into the suburb of Ermita, where Company L, which was leading, engaged in a hot fight along Calle Real, where the Spaniards had erected barricades.

Once Calle Real was cleared, the attack was virtually over. About noon a white flag was floating over the city walls. The Californians advanced at a double quick across Luneta as General Greene and his staff arrived to receive the surrender.

By some error, while the troops were standing at rest, Spaniards in the walled city fired, fatally wounding Privates Dunsoupe and Lamerson, of the Californians.

Our casualties were eight killed and forty wounded.

The Spanish loss is estimated at 120 to 600 killed and wounded.

The Americans took 11,000 prisoners, 7,000 being Spanish regulars; 20,000 Mauser rifles, 3,000 Remingtons, eighteen modern cannon and many of the obsolete pattern.

Following the victory General Merritt issued the following bulletin to his troops. It was also translated into Spanish and posted where the Spaniards and natives could see it:

"In view of the extraordinary conditions under which this army is operating, its commanding General desires to acquaint the officers and men with the expectations he entertains as to their conduct.

"You are assembled on a foreign soil, situated within the western confines of a vast ocean, separating you from your native land. You have come not as despoilers or oppressors, but simply as the instrument of a strong, free government, whose purposes are beneficent, and which declared itself in this war champion of those oppressed by Spanish misrule.

"It is therefore the intention of this order to appeal directly to your

pride in your position as representatives of the high civilization, in the hope and with the firm conviction that you will so conduct yourselves in your relations with the inhabitants of these islands as to convince them of the lofty nature of the mission you have come to execute.

"It is not believed any acts of pillage, rapine or violence will be committed by soldiers or others in the employ of the United States, but should there be persons with this command who prove themselves unworthy of this confidence, their acts will be considered not only as crimes against the sufferers, but as direct insults to the United States flag and be punished on the spot with the maximum penalty known to military law."

The American troops observed thoroughly the spirit of this document.

GENERAL MERRITT'S STORY OF THE BATTLE.

General Wesley Merritt tells of the fall of Manila in the following report made to the War Department. It is dated on board the transport China, August 31st. After giving briefly the story of his embarkation and arrival at Manila and the disposition of the troops there he says:

"As General Aguinaldo did not visit me on my arrival nor offer his services as a subordinate military leader, and as my instructions from the President fully contemplated the occupation of the islands by the American land forces, and stated that 'the powers of the military occupant are absolute and supreme and immediately operate upon the political condition of the inhabitants,' I did not consider it wise to hold any direct communication with the insurgent leader until I should be in possession of the City of Manila, especially as I would not until then be in a position to issue a proclamation and enforce my authority, in the event that his pretensions should clash with my designs.

"For these reasons the preparations for the attack on the city were pressed and military operations conducted without reference to the situation of the insurgent forces. The wisdom of this course was subsequently fully established by the fact that when the troops of my command carried the Spanish intrenchments, extending from the sea to the Pasay road on the extreme Spanish right, we were under no obligations, by prearranged plans of mutual attack, to turn to the

right and clear the front still held against the insurgents, but were able to move forward at once and occupy the city and suburbs.

"The difficulty in gaining an avenue of approach to the Spanish line lay in the fact of my disinclination to ask General Aguinaldo to withdraw from the beach and the 'Calle Real,' so that General Greene could move forward. This was overcome by instructions to General Greene to arrange, if possible, with the insurgent brigade commander in his immediate vicinity to move to the right and allow the American forces unobstructed control of the roads in their immediate front. No objection was made, and accordingly General Greene's brigade threw forward a heavy outpost line on the 'Calle Real' and the beach and constructed a trench, in which a portion of the guns of the Utah Batteries was placed.

"The Spanish, observing this activity on our part, made a very sharp attack with infantry and artillery on the night of July 31. The behavior of our troops during this night attack was all that could be desired, and I have, in cablegrams to the War Department, taken occasion to commend by name those who deserve special mention for good conduct in the affair. Our position was extended and strengthened after this and resisted successfully repeated night attacks, our forces suffering, however, considerable loss in wounded and killed, while the losses of the enemy, owing to the darkness, could not be ascertained.

"Upon the assembly of MacArthur's brigade in support of Greene's I had about 8,500 men in position to attack, and I deemed the time had come for final action. Under date of August 6th Admiral Dewey agreed to my suggestion that we should send a joint letter to the Captain-General notifying him that he should remove from the city all non-combatants within forty-eight hours, and that operations against the defenses of Manila might begin at any time after the expiration of that period. This letter was sent August 7th, and a reply was received the same date to the effect that the Spanish were without places of refuge for the increased numbers of wounded, sick, women and children now lodged within the walls.

"On the 9th a formal joint demand for the surrender of the city was sent in. The Captain-General's reply, of same date, stated that the council of defense had declared the demand could not be granted, but the Captain-General offered to consult his government if we would allow him the time strictly necessary for the communications by way of Hongkong. This was declined on our part, because the necessity

was apparent and very urgent that decisive action should be taken at once to compel the enemy to give up the town, in order to relieve our troops from the trenches and from the great exposure to unhealthy conditions, which were unavoidable in a bivouac during the rainy season. It was then agreed between Admiral Dewey and myself that an attempt should be made to carry the extreme right of the Spanish line of intrenchments in front of the positions at that time occupied by our troops, which, with its flank on the seashore, was entirely open to the fire of the navy.

"It was not my intention to press the assault at this point, in case the enemy should hold it in strong force, until after the navy had made practicable breaches in the works and shaken the troops holding them, which could not be done by the army alone, owing to the absence of siege guns. It was believed, however, that the attempt should be made to drive the enemy out of his intrenchments before resorting to the bombardment of the city. In anticipation of the attack General Anderson assumed direct command in the field, and all the troops were in position on the 13th at an early hour in the morning.

"About 10 A. M. on that day our fleet opened a hot and accurate fire of heavy shells and rapid-fire projectiles on the sea flank of the Spanish entrenchments at the powder magazine fort, and at the same time the Utah Batteries, in position in our trenches near the 'Calle Real,' began firing with great accuracy. At 10:25 A. M., on a prearranged signal from our trenches that it was believed our troops could advance, the navy ceased firing and immediately a light line of skirmishers from the Colorado regiment of Greene's brigade passed over our trenches and deployed rapidly forward, another line from the same regiment from the left flank of our earthworks advancing swiftly up the beach in open order. Both these lines found the powder magazine fort and the trenches flanking it deserted, but as they passed over the Spanish works they were met by a sharp fire from a second line, situated in the streets of Malate, by which a number of men were killed and wounded, among others the soldier who pulled down the Spanish colors still flying on the fort and raised our own.

"The works of the second line soon gave way to the determined advance of Greene's troops, and that officer pushed his brigade rapidly through Malate and over the bridges, to occupy Binondo and San Miguel. In the meantime the brigade of General MacArthur, advancing simultaneously on the Pasay road, encountered a very sharp

fire, coming from the blockhouses, trenches and woods in his front. With much gallantry and with a minimum loss MacArthur advanced and held the bridges and the town of Malate.

"The City of Manila was now in our possession, excepting the walled town, but shortly after the entry of our troops into Malate a white flag was displayed on the walls. After a conversation with the Spanish authorities at the palace of the Governor-General a preliminary agreement of the terms of capitulation was signed by the Captain-General and myself. This agreement was subsequently incorporated into the formal terms of capitulation, as arranged by the officers representing the two forces.

"I submit that for troops to enter under fire a town covering a wide area; to rapidly deploy and guard all principal points in the extensive suburbs; to keep out the insurgent forces pressing for admission; to quietly disarm an army of Spaniards more than equal in numbers to the American troops, and finally by all this to prevent entirely all rapine, pillage and disorder, and gain complete possession of a city of 300,000 people, filled with natives hostile to European interests, was an act which only the law-abiding, temperate, resolute American soldier, well and skillfully handled by his regimental and brigade commanders, could accomplish.

(Signed)

"Major-General U. S. A."

SPEAKING OF INDEMNITY.

"Sue a beggar," etc.—Syracuse Herald.

CHAPTER XXII.

AN ILLUSTRATIVE STORY.

ERY much has been written about the Philippine Islands, yet it seems impossible to satiate the American people with information of the Filipinos. Our new Asiatic empire is of intense interest. There is a sort of glamour and romance about it and then, too, it was bought with American blood and treasure. It is surely appropriate in a volume dealing with the heroism of our soldiers to tell a story illustrative of how much the Filipinos have still to learn.

They have a beautiful custom of kneeling at Vespers before their patron saint to say their prayers. The whole family kneel together and then the children kiss the hands of their parents and wish them good evening. Dean C. Worcester, who has spent much time among these people, tells of an incident that is amusing and instructive. He had received in his mail from America some copies of Judge, which at the time was printing caricatures of Grover Cleveland in the garb of a friar with a tin halo supported by an upright from the back of his collar.

"After reading my papers," says the Dean, "I used them for wrapping bird skins, and when one day I was tearing up some old copies of Judge for this purpose I came across a particularly villainous full page cartoon of our then chief magistrate in the garb just described. He was represented in an attitude of devotion, with hands clasped and very large tears rolling down his cheeks.

"The owner of the house begged for the picture and I gave it to him, little suspecting the use to which he intended putting it. I was called away to catch a python and when I returned, after an absence of a few days, was surprised to see the cartoon of Mr. Cleveland hanging at one end of the hut in a neat bamboo frame.

"Even then I failed to appreciate the full beauty of the situation until 6 o'clock, when father, mother and children fell on their knees before the preposterous thing and offered to it their evening petitions. So far as I know, Mr. Cleveland is the first American President to have been canonized."

CHAPTER XXIII.

FLAG FLOATS WHERE NO BLOOD WAS SPILLED.

THERE is but one island in our new territory that was captured without the shedding of the blood of either American or Spaniard. The Stars and Stripes float over Guam, in the Ladrones. The little island captured by Uncle Sam's sailors as a diversion, while on their way to Manila, is an ideal spot, geographically important as a naval station. It is a veritable Garden of Eden and is a favorite with officers who, having fought the good fight, are eager to be stationed there until there is more fighting to be done.

In a story of the heroism of our soldiers and the bloody battles they waged to free an empire from Spanish tyranny and misrule it would be singularly inappropriate to omit the bloodless capture of Guam. An officer who was one of the remarkable expedition gives the best account of the event so unusual in the history of the jealousy among natives of their territory and the wars they have waged in defense or offense. The officer's story is as follows:

"Soon after the transports Peking, Sydney and Australia, convoyed by the Charleston, left Honolulu, the news was wig-wagged that we were to make for Guam, to capture the Mariannes group. There was intense excitement on board, and every man sought information regarding this hitherto almost unknown group of islands. The charts in the Captain's cabin indicated that the main town of the island of Guam, Aganya, was situated on a bay of the same name; that the Bay of San Luis de Apra was the principal port of the Ladrones, and that it was defended by two batteries; one, situated on a veritable Gibraltar, at the entrance to the bay, was called Fort San Yago. The other defense, Fort Santa Cruz, was placed in the middle of the coral reefs that fill the landward side of the port of San Luis de Apra.

"At 5 o'clock on the morning of June 20th the beautiful shores of Guam could be faintly seen through a misty rain. From the deck we

saw that the island was mountainous, that its shores were green, and that it was heavily timbered. The Charleston, at 9:30 A. M., turned her nose to the land to explore the Bay of Aganya. Every eye was strained and expectation was on tiptoe, as the vessel that was to bring a message of war to this dependency of Spain advanced slowly into the fog.

"Soon the Charleston could be seen scurrying southward, following the fringe of coast-line reef. She was making for the Bay of San Luis de Apra, and entered at the southern end, steaming cautiously along under the guns of San Yago. 'What a daring thing to do!' was the universal thought. Had we known that this hole in the ground, charted as Fort San Yago, boasted only a dismounted small brass cannon, surrounded by the bright flowers that drew sustenance from the decaying wood supports, we should have been less nervous as to the possible consequences to the Charleston.

"The cruiser fired two shots. Long before the sound reached us we saw jets of flame from her side and responding columns of water rise from the sea about the fort. The firing ceased; we descried two Whitehall boats making for the warship, and soon the Captain of the port, Jose Garcia y Guttierez, of the navy, and the port physician, Dr. Jose Romero, were presenting their compliments and the regrets of Colonel Marina to the American naval commandant that they had no ammunition with which to answer the 'courteous salute.'

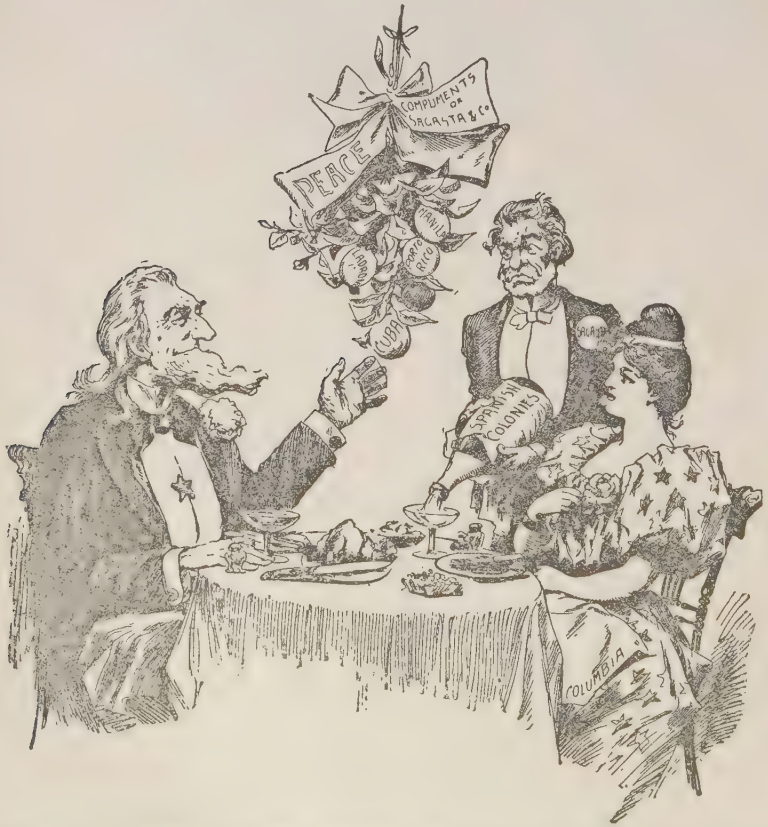
"In the next few minutes many matters were disclosed, and the emissaries of the Spanish Government were given to understand that a formal surrender of the Ladrone group must be made on the morrow. Several hours after the time fixed upon Lieutenant-Colonel Jose Marina y Vega and his aids appeared in a boat and surrendered the Ladrones to the United States, turning over to Captain Glass fifty-four Remingtons and 7,000 rounds of ammunition. The next morning 110 men marched along the red, dusty road from Aganya to Piti, and these gave themselves over to Lieutenant Braunersreuther. To his resourceful tact is due the fact that the Ladrones were secured to the United States without shedding one drop of blood. An immense American flag was raised over Fort Santa Cruz; the Charleston fired the national salute; the prisoners were hustled on board the Sydney; the bands played, and the Mariannes were American property."

When one has acquired something it is always well to know what it is. Guam is a tropical paradise without the tropical pestilences. That

describes it, and the character of the people can be told in the following anecdote of one of the American conquerors:

"The natives are a gentle race, hospitable to a degree, and not over intelligent. The Mayor of Sumai is a native who speaks English. He invited us to his house, where we met his really pretty daughters, and where we enjoyed some good wine. This house boasted an American cottage organ, and, upon my request, one of the comely girls decided to give us some music. The girl, with a quaint, embarrassed smile, plunged into 'After the Ball.' We had not recovered when she struck into 'The New Bully.' Guam is a resort for whalers of all nations, and some musical sons of the sea had wooed the dusky daughters of the Ladrones with the songs of the Bowery."

CELEBRATING THE OCCASION.



Uncle Sam—"Try some of these Spanish olives on the branch, from our friends in Madrid; they are all right!"—Philadelphia Inquirer.

CHAPTER XXIV.

PERSEVERANCE OF A WOMAN.

THE wife of Brigadier-General C. McCormick Reeve, Provost General of Manila, will have her name connected with the American military operations in the Philippines. General Reeve was the Colonel of the Thirteenth Wisconsin when that regiment started on the Asiatic expedition. His wife, to whom he was dearly attached, could not bear his going on the long and hazardous journey. She did everything in her power to gain permission from the Government to accompany her husband, but the rule was inviolable. Women were not allowed on the transports and there could be no exception. Baffled Mrs. Reeve was not beaten, and with a woman's perseverance, inspired by the love of her husband, she determined that she would go with him despite the Government or its guards, with their bright bayonets.

The old adage that where a woman wills she will was quite true. Mrs. Reeve went aboard the transport shortly before it sailed, ostensibly to see that her husband's quarters were comfortable and to say good-bye to him. When the time of parting came she begged the Colonel not to accompany her to the side of the boat. They had said good-bye and she did not want it to be any harder than it was. Then, too, it was bad luck to see one bound on a long journey out of sight. The Colonel left his wife and she slipped down below, where she hid herself in a dark corner among the cargo. Of course, with a woman's foresight, she had taken with her something to eat and drink.

Great was the excitement of the officers, amazement of the Colonel and mirth of the men, when, on the second day out, the lady appeared on deck and with mock terror asked if they were going to throw her into the sea. There she was and there she stayed while the big transport plowed its furrow over the Pacific, and there were many happy days with her husband until the boat arrived at Honolulu.

Army regulations are not to be trifled with, even by a charming woman. The orders were that none but men should go and they had to

be obeyed. Mrs. Reeve was not allowed to re-embark at Honolulu. There were guards to see to that. Some women might have been discouraged. The Colonel's wife was not. She secured passage to Hong-Kong and from there went to Manila. It is but fair to state of the officers who had been forced to seem harsh to her at Honolulu, that they gave her a royal welcome. They admired her pluck and the love that would make her so daring and so successful in her avowed purpose.

WHAT WILL HE DO?

The eyes of the world are upon him.—Minneapolis Tribune.

CHAPTER XXV.

ONE OF THE BRAVE BOYS.

OOTS" McDERMOTT, of Pittsburg, is not particularly big for his thirteen years, or more imposing than most boys of his age, and yet he has a record of which any soldier might be proud and is a veteran who has faced the enemy's fire and rendered valuable service in action. "Boots" made his living shining shoes and heard men talking of the war until he could stand it no longer. When the Tenth Pennsylvania Regiment, United States Volunteers, were in the cars at Pittsburg ready to start for San Francisco, "Boots" slipped aboard, was hidden by the soldiers and went with them on their long trip. The boys in blue made him their pet and mascot and he was taken along when the troops started for Manila.

In the assault that won a new empire for America the Pennsylvania troops were in a particularly dangerous position and the Mauser bullets ripped through the air with a sound like that along a telegraph line when a storm hisses and sings through the vibrating wires and there was death and suffering in the air. The ammunition of the Pennsylvanians was running short and many a brave heart was beating anxiously. Suddenly little "Boots" scurried out of the trenches to run over a wide and exposed stretch, where the bullets flew like scud from the sea, driven over the marshes by a northeaster, and the men in the trenches forgot their own grave peril as they thought of the little lad and were not ashamed of him, but sorry in the belief that, terror-stricken, he had fled at the awful sounds of battle.

It was not long before "Boots," laden down with all the ammunition, came staggering across the same field, facing the leaden hail, and there was a mighty cheer as he fell into the trenches with his precious burden. It was not much, but the men knew that it would mean more. The regiment was proud of its mascot and boy hero. It was not many minutes before a plentiful supply of ammunition had been given to the Pennsylvanians, and a position that was weak had been made strong and impregnable by one little bootblack.

While the fighting continued, "Boots" was not idle. At the greatest risk of his life he hurried along the trenches distributing the needed cartridges and again he was bearing water to the wounded and the dying and to those who, exhausted in the terrific heat of the conflict, were wild for a sup of the precious water. When the battle was over "Boots" McDermott was the hero in a regiment of heroes and the proud Pennsylvanians were loud in their praises and untiring in their efforts to do honor to a thirteen-year-old boy.

Admiral Dewey heard of the youngster and sent for him. He wanted to know that sort of a boy. So pleased was the great sea-captain with the modesty that went with the record of this boy who had been baptized by fire, that he ordered a beautiful sailor's suit made for him. The Admiral wanted to appropriate him for the Navy. The two became great friends. Dewey wisely wanted the boy to get an education that his manly courage might be used to good purpose. He sent the boy home.

The Pittsburg newspapers and public greeted him with an enthusiasm such as Cæsar may have aroused when he returned from the Gallic wars. "Boots" was the guest of honor at the Bijou Theatre in Pittsburg the night after he came to town, and made a bigger hit than the performance.

"Boots" marched into a box with the dignity befitting a veteran and a friend of Dewey. Ovation followed ovation until at last "Boots" found the bright light of fame beating upon the box too strong for him, and he sought seclusion among his friends in the gallery. One result of the enthusiasm for the boy veteran is a poem by Harry C. Burns, a Pittsburg dealer in books and periodicals. Following are a couple of stanzas:

There were forty-nine reporters; all the girls were out;
I tipped a copper with a toby, and asked, "What's all this about?"
Said he: "Are you a stranger? If not, well, you're a clown,
For every one in 'Pittsie' knows that 'Boots' is back in town."

* * * * * * * * * *

The greeting of our city we give to "Boots'" fame,
And to every other lad that dares to win a name.
Just home from old Manila, "Boots" wears a hero's crown,
That's why the people rise en masse when "Boots" comes back to town.

CHAPTER XXVI.

THREE HISTORICAL FIRST EVENTS.

THE FIRST GUN FIRED, THE FIRST BATTLE AND THE FIRST TRAGEDY OF THE WAR.

TO THE gunboat Nashville belongs the honor of firing the first gun of the war. Although she did gallant service throughout the war, most of the time guarding her post as a part of the blockading squadron off Cienfuegos and Havana, her chief distinction will be that mentioned above and that of taking the first prize of the war.

It was on the morning that Sampson's fleet first left Key West to take up its position in front of Havana. The Nashville, Commander Washburn Maynard, was moving along with the fleet when across the water in the distance one of her jackies descried a trail of smoke. She was off in pursuit as soon as permission could be obtained from Admiral Sampson, entering into the emprise with as much spirit and dash as though it were a daily experience instead of the first hostile act done by our navy in something like a quarter century.

The Nashville was soon in position to gain a good view of the ship whose smoke had started her on the chase and she made out not only the Spanish flag flying impudently at her stern, but that she was the Buena Ventura, a Spanish lumber craft. The gunboat's deck had been hastily cleared for action and the men all sent to general quarters, where, in a high state of excitement, they awaited the issue of this warlike adventure. When the creeping lumber craft was in hailing distance and had refused to stop at signals from the warship, a shot ripped out from the deck of the gunboat and ricochetted along the water in front of the Spaniards. It was fired from the 4-inch rapid-fire gun on the deck of the Nashville and it brought the Buena Ventura to a sudden stop. The Spanish vessel was taken in charge and sent to Key West, the first prize of the war.

FIRST BATTLE OF THE WAR.

The first battle of the war was the engagement between American ships and Spanish batteries at Matanzas on April 27, two days after the formal declaration of war.

Now that the war is over bombardment of Matanzas is seen to have been an incident of merely chronological importance. Many people had refused to take the war seriously, and bets were freely offered that not a life would be lost, unless by accident. The Matanzas affair showed that there were real guns on the American warships and that the sailors were not afraid to fire them. It also showed the navy the popularity of "pounding sand," providing that the process of pounding was properly reported.

Matanzas Bay is about forty miles east of Havana, on the north Cuban coast. The town is at the head of the bay, which is three miles wide at the entrance, and was protected by batteries on both the western and eastern points. During the first days of the blockade the Spaniards were noticed to be vigorously fortifying the low, sandy points, Point Rubal Cava on the west and Point Maya on the east. The batteries had also fired on the torpedo boat Foote while on patrol duty, and it was thought that Matanzas might soon be needed as a base for the issue of supplies to Cuban allies and reconcentrados, and as a landing place for the army of invasion. Altogether there seemed to be a multiplicity of reasons for the silencing of the batteries and destroying the fortifications. The double-turreted monitor Puritan and the cruiser Cincinnati were joined on their blockading station near Matanzas by Admiral Sampson in his flagship, the New York, on the forenoon of April 27. At noon a reconnoissance was undertaken, the New York standing in toward the entrance of the bay, followed by the Puritan and Cincinnati.

The New York drew the fire of the batteries at about 1 o'clock, the 8-inch shells from Rubal Cava falling short. The New York replied with an 8-inch gun, and then as both shore batteries opened, the New York took a position between them, firing both broadsides, one to the west and the other to the east. The Puritan pushed in close behind her, and engaged the forts with her 12 and 6-inch guns, and a few minutes later the Cincinnati was given permission to engage the shore defenses.

After the engagement had lasted about fifteen minutes the batteries

at Point Rubal Cava and Point Maya seemed to be silenced, and Admiral Sampson gave the order to cease firing. As the cruisers stood out of the bay the eastern battery took a last shot at the Puritan, which was answered with a 12-inch shell, which burst inside the fortifications, and sent a fountain of sand fifty feet into the air. The official reports said that the forts were bombarded, destroyed and silenced, but as no movement was made upon the town, and no landing attempted, nothing was accurately learned as to the extent of the damage. It was assumed that the enemy suffered some loss of life, but no definite information was obtainable. The one positive fact was that the American shells had ploughed down the earthworks which the Spaniards had been so busily engaged in building.

FIRST TRAGEDY OF THE WAR.

The Cardenas affair scarcely attained to the dignity of a naval battle, but it showed the country that there could be two sides to a naval fight. Three of the smaller American vessels engaged three Spanish gunboats protected by masked shore batteries, and during the hour that the firing lasted the torpedo boat was disabled and lost five men.

Cardenas is a port on the north coast of Cuba, just east of Matanzas Bay. Very little was known about its strength, except that the main channel was protected with submarine mines, and that gunboats were accustomed to run out of this port and threaten the smaller patrol boats of the blockading fleet.

When the gunboats Machias and Wilmington, the torpedo boat Winslow and the armed revenue cutter Hudson met off Cardenas on the morning of May 12th, it was decided to make a reconnoissance of the harbor, and destroy, if possible, the spiteful little Spanish boats which had been worrying the patrol. As the main channel was mined, it was necessary to find another entrance, and for this purpose a detour to the eastward was made. The Machias drew too much water to get over the bar, and so Commander Merry, the senior commanding officer, remained outside, about 2,000 yards off Diana Cay.

The gunboat Wilmington, in spite of her high bow and formidable military mast, which gave her the nickname of the "giraffe," drew but ten feet, and yet with this light draught it was necessary to make constant soundings, which sometimes showed only six inches of water under her bottom. The torpedo boat Winslow drew but five feet, while

the revenue cutter Hudson, which is built like a tugboat, drew but little more.

Feeling their way with the lead, the three vessels proceeded into the harbor by an entrance inside Cayo Cupey, the Winslow on the east shore, the Wilmington and the Hudson over toward the west shore. While they were standing in toward the town, the Spanish launch Lijena retreated up a small stream without firing a shot.

At the head of the harbor were some wharves and shipping, partially concealed by barges anchored in the stream, but no gunboats could be made out with any certainty. The three vessels opened fire at 1:40 upon the shore batteries at a range of about 3,500 yards. The firing was necessarily slow on account of the powder smoke which settled down upon the ships, and, as the Spaniards were using smokeless powder, the masked shore batteries were hard to locate.

When about 2,000 yards from the shore the Wilmington was prevented from farther advance by shallow water. From appearances there were two Spanish gunboats hidden among the wharves, one showing her bow and one her stern. Commander Todd asked Lieutenant J. B. Bernadou, the commanding officer of the Winslow, to run in closer and locate the gunboats. At this time the two vessels were so near together that this order was given orally through the megaphone.

The Winslow darted ahead at high speed, and had gone about 700 yards from the Wilmington, when she seemed to be made a target for all the Spanish guns, both ashore and afloat. She was in the trap which the Spaniards had cleverly planned in anticipation of an attack on this port. When near enough to make out the gunboats at the wharves, Lieutenant Bernadou found himself among a lot of white buoys, which he at once guessed were range buoys. It was certain that the enemy's gunners had the exact range of the little torpedo boat, and were peppering her mercilessly.

Early in the engagement Lieutenant Bernadou was wounded in the thigh, but twisting a handkerchief around his leg as a makeshift tourniquet, he continued fighting. One of the first shots that struck the Winslow disabled the steering gear and one of her boilers. According to the report of Commander Todd, it was fifteen or twenty minutes after the Winslow went in before the officers on the Wilmington saw that she was unmanageable. In this time Lieutenant Bernadou may or may not have had a chance to withdraw from his perilous position, but having been ordered in, it is natural he should hesitate to retreat.

By this time the Hudson had got into action not far away, and her commanding officer, Lieutenant Frank H. Newcomb, was able to hear the megaphone message from the Winslow: "We are disabled, come and tow us off."

It was a dangerous undertaking, but the risk of danger is a matter of course in the revenue cutter service, and Lieutenant Newcomb proved himself as brave as any of his comrades in the regular navy. The Winslow was pitching wildly in a seething shower of shot and shell, but Lieutenant Newcomb manœuvred his boat so as to heave her a line. Under all the conditions, this was not an easy thing to do, and there was some unavoidable delay before the line could be actually thrown.

Ensign Worth Bagley, who was second in command of the Winslow, had half a dozen men ready to receive the line. "Heave her! heave her!" he shouted over to the Hudson. "Be sure you catch it," replied an officer of the cutter. "All right," said Bagley with a smile, "this is getting rather too hot for comfort."

Just at this time a Spanish shell burst on the deck of the Winslow, killing Ensign Bagley and two other men outright, and fatally wounding two others, who died within a few hours. These other men were John Vavares, oiler; Elijah B. Tunnell, cabin cook; J. Denfee and George B. Meek, firemen. The shell that did such damage was the last effective shot that the Spaniards fired, as their two gunboats and some of their shore batteries had been silenced.

The Hudson finally got a line aboard the Winslow, but before she had towed the torpedo boat out of range, the line parted. Again there was some delay in getting a line aboard, but the Spaniards did not have an accurate range and the shots went wild or passed over the two little vessels.

When the outer anchorage was reached the dead and dying were transferred to the Wilmington, and Lieutenant Bernadou, with two other slightly wounded men, were given surgical attention.

After some temporary repairs, the Winslow was able to proceed to Key West under her own steam. She had been struck eighteen times, mostly by 2½ and 3-inch projectiles. A smokestack and ventilator had been knocked over and her after conning tower had been hit repeatedly and disabled.

Neither the Wilmington nor the Hudson had received any damage, although shots had been dropped all around them.

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE TREATY OF PEACE WITH SPAIN.

NEGOTIATED AT PARIS AND RATIFIED BY THE UNITED STATES SENATE BY ONLY ONE VOTE MORE THAN NECESSARY.

VERTURES for peace with the United States were first made by Spain, July 26, 1898, through M. Jules Cambon, the French Ambassador at Washington. In a brief note a request was made for terms under which the United States would be willing to end the war.

At that time Santiago, the second city of importance in Cuba, was in the hands of the Americans, General Miles had invaded Porto Rico and had met with but slight resistance from the Spanish troops, while the natives welcomed him with open arms; General Merritt had arrived at Manila for the purpose of capturing the city, all of Spain's ships except one squadron at home had been sunk or captured and a flying squadron of American warships had been organized under Commodore Watson for the purpose of crossing the Atlantic and laying waste the coast cities of the Spanish peninsula.

President McKinley replied to Spain's peace overtures on July 29th, and demanded the independence of Cuba, cession of Porto Rico and the Island of Guam and the retention of Manila pending the final disposition of the Philippine Islands by a joint commission.

The Queen Regent approved the American peace conditions on August 6th. M. Cambon was officially advised on August 11th of her action and on the following day, August 12th, at exactly 4:23 o'clock P. M., his signature and that of Secretary of State Day were officially affixed to a peace protocol.

The President at once issued a proclamation declaring a suspension of hostilities, and messages to that effect were dispatched to General Miles, in Porto Rico; to General Merritt, in the Philippines, and to General Shafter, at Santiago. Similar advices were cabled to Ad-

mirals Dewey and Sampson, and to Commodore Howell, commanding the Northern Cuban blockading squadron.

The day of the signing of the protocol was an eventful one. One hour before the document was signed a bombardment of Manzanillo, Province of Santiago de Cuba, was begun by the Newark, Hist, Suwanee, Osceola and Alvarado. It was not until early the next morning (August 13th) that the message reached Captain Goodrich, of the Newark.

In Porto Rico news of peace stopped a battle at Pablo Vasques just in the nick of time. General Brooke's command was formed in line of battle to the northwest of Guayamo and the guns were being trained on the enemy when a mounted courier came galloping up with the peace orders, much to the disgust of the rank and file.

The message sent to the Philippines did not reach its destination until August 16th.

On September 9th President McKinley named the following American members of the Peace Commission: William R. Day, ex-Secretary of State; Cushman K. Davis, U. S. Senator from Minnesota; William P. Frye, U. S. Senator from Maine; George Gray, U. S. Senator from Delaware, and Whitelaw Reid, editor of the New York Tribune.

The Spanish commissioners were Eugenio Montero Rios, B. de Abarazuza, J. de Garnica, W. R. de Villi-Urrutia and Rafael Cerero.

The commissioners left New York September 17th and arrived in Paris ten days later. The French Foreign Office put at the disposal of the visiting commissions the sumptuous and historic Salon des Ambassadeurs, in which all the joint sessions were held.

The first joint session of the commissions was held October 1st. For nearly a month discussions and negotiations were continued over the Cuban article of the protocol. All the terms of that article had been accepted by the Spanish commissioners by October 18th, except that of the Cuban debt.

One point for which the Spanish Commissioners contended long and earnestly was the attempt to induce the United States to assume sovereignty over Cuba and become responsible for the debt. But the American Commissioners steadily declined to assume any part of it, holding firmly to the terms of the intervention resolutions passed by Congress.

When, in the discussions, the American Commissioners officially rejected the idea of accepting sovereignty over Cuba, the Spaniards

urged that, since Spain had been compelled to relinquish sovereignty and the United States had refused to accept it for herself, Cuba was therefore de facto in a state of anarchy. To this the Americans rejoined that, without accepting sovereignty, the United States considered themselves bound to maintain security for all the inhabitants. They affirmed that the war was waged not for conquest but for liberation and order, and that this country could not allow the prolongation at its very doors of a state of things which would be inimical to the cause of humanity and civilization. By the intervention resolution the war was declared not one of conquest, but, by agreeing to be invested with the sovereignty of Cuba, the United States would give the impression of having conquered the island for territorial aggrandizement. It positively refused to accept the capacity of sovereignty, which would be inconsistent with the character of humanitarian disinterestedness essential to the honor of America. Further, it was urged that, since the United States had declared that the people of Cuba are by right and ought to be free and independent, good faith requires the carrying out of this declaration, it being plain that, if Cuba were annexed to the United States, while she might be free, she would not be independent. At last, on October 27th, the Spanish Government, through its commissioners, accepted the view of the American Commissioners in the matter of the debt, that it is no concern of this country, and agreed that the Cuban articles of the protocol should, without conditions, have a place in the final treaty of peace.

On October 31st the formulated demands of the United States regarding the Philippines were presented. They comprised the cession of the entire archipelago, this government to reimburse Spain to the extent of her permanent and pacific expenditures in the Philippines; in other words, the United States offered to be responsible to Spain for her actual outlay in these islands for the advantage of the inhabitants, for permanent betterments and improvements.

On November 4th the Spanish Government flatly refused to accept the proposition, claiming that M. Cambon had been instructed to reserve sovereignty over the entire group before signing the protocol, and that the United States had made no protest or objection at the time to this reservation. They maintained that the capitulation of Manila had occurred on the day following the signing of the protocol, and was therefore invalid. They claimed that the United States had wrongfully appropriated public moneys belonging to Spain by seizing the tariff

duties at Manila to the extent of nearly $1,000,000, and that the United States held as prisoners the Spanish troops at Manila in violation of international law, because it was done after the suspension of hostilities under the protocol, and that by the imprisonment of these troops Spain had been prevented from quelling the insurrection, and the United States had thus contributed to the violence against Spain after the cessation of hostilities. Moreover, they denied that the United States had any ultimate rights in the Philippine archipelago, and could have none save by the consent of Spain in the present negotiations, and upon terms satisfactory to her.

In reply to these contentions of the Spanish Commissioners the American Commissioners made a general denial.

In doing so they rehearsed the facts of the case regarding the negotiation of the terms of the protocol in dispute. The progress of the preliminary negotiations was as follows: On July 26th the Washington Government received from Spain an inquiry as to the basis on which the war might be terminated. Four days later the information was forthcoming in a response embodying the terms of the protocol, save for the use in the Philippine paragraph of the word "possession." Before the response was formally presented to M. Cambon, Spain's representative in Washington, he suggested the substitution of the word "disposition." The United States Government acquiesced, the substitution was made, the formal response was delivered to M. Cambon, who forwarded it to Madrid, and on August 7th Spain forwarded her reply, which, as affecting the Philippine question, was as follows:

"The terms relating to the Philippines seem, to our understanding, quite indefinite. On the other hand, the ground on which the United States believes itself entitled to occupy the bay, harbor and city of Manila, pending the conclusion of a treaty of peace, cannot be that of conquest, since, in spite of the blockade maintained on the sea by the American fleet, and in spite of the siege established on land by a native, supported and provided for by an American Admiral, Manila still holds its own and the Spanish standard still waves over the city. Furthermore, the whole archipelago of the Philippines is in the power and under the sovereignty of Spain.

"Therefore, the Government of Spain thinks that the temporary occupation of Manila should constitute a guarantee. It is asserted that the treaty of peace shall determine the control, disposition and government of the Philippines, but, as the intentions of the federal govern-

ment remain veiled, the Spanish Government must therefore declare that, while accepting the third condition, it does not renounce the sovereignty of Spain over the archipelago, leaving it to the negotiators to agree as to such reforms as the condition of these possessions and the level of the culture of their natives may render desirable. The Government of Her Majesty accepts the third condition, with the above mentioned declarations."

The United States authorities on August 10th addressed to M. Cambon a communication pointing out that, while the foregoing utterances from Madrid were understood by him to convey Spain's acceptance of the terms of peace, the acceptance was not entirely explicit, and that the most direct and certain way of avoiding misunderstandings was to embody in a protocol the terms on which the negotiations for peace were to be undertaken.

Along with this note was sent to M. Cambon a protocol embodying the precise terms tendered to Spain in the American communication of about July 30th. Immediately upon receiving them M. Cambon transmitted the protocol to Madrid, accompanied by a message from himself, clearly showing that the French Ambassador knew the United States Government did not regard Spain's response to the peace terms as satisfactory or acceptable.

M. Cambon's message to Spain was as follows:

"The Federal Government has decided to state precisely in a protocol the basis upon which the peace negotiations must, in their judgment, be entered upon. I herewith send this document."

This message went to Spain about August 10th. Two days later M. Cambon notified Judge Day that he had just received a telegram dated at Madrid, August 12th, in which Duke Almodovar del Rio, the Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs, announced that the Spanish Government, by order of the Queen Regent, had conferred upon him (M. Cambon) full powers to sign without other formality the protocol drawn between M. Cambon and Judge Day.

That Philippine sovereignty was understood by this government to be involved in the basis of peace is shown by the fact that suspension of hostilities was deferred until the protocol was signed. It was plain that Secretary Day saw in the Duke of Almodovar's note of August 7th an attempted reservation of sovereignty, and it was only when the United States regarded Spain as having made an unqualified compact to leave Philippine sovereignty to a commission by signing the protocol

that hostilities were suspended. It was not the intention of the United States to prejudge Spain's rights, but to have them determined under the protocol by the peace conference. Having presented the proofs that the United States had, under the protocol, the right to consider Spain's Philippine sovereignty, if it cared to exercise it, the American Commissioners presented the instructions of the home government, said to be of a positive character, to the effect that no further discussion as to the right to the islands should be admitted, and that the only matter remaining for discussion was the manner of giving over the islands. November 16th the Spanish Commissioners reaffirmed their position as to a discussion of sovereignty of the islands. They insisted that the words "shall determine the control, disposition and government of the Philippines" in the protocol did not warrant any reference to Spain's withdrawal from the Philippines except on her own terms. They therefore proposed arbitration of the words of the protocol. The American Commissioners contended that the words were plain enough and declined to consider arbitration.

On November 21st at a joint session of the commissions, the representatives of the United States presented a final proposition. They maintained that this country could not modify their proposal for the cession of the entire Philippine archipelago, but were authorized to offer to Spain, in case Spain should agree to cede the territory in question, the sum of $20,000,000 as a lump sum to cover all expenditures for betterments. It was also stated in this proposition by the American Commissioners that they were prepared to insert in the treaty a stipulation to the effect that for a term of twelve years Spanish ships and merchandise should be admitted into Philippine ports on the same terms as American ships and merchandise, provided the Philippines are ceded to the United States. It was also declared the policy of the United States to maintain in the Philippines an open door to the world's commerce.

The American Commissioners also offered to insert in the proposed treaty, in connection with the cession of territory by Spain to the United States, a provision for the mutual relinquishment of all claims for indemnity, national and individual, of every kind, of the United States against Spain and of Spain against the United States, that may have arisen since the beginning of the late Cuban insurrection and prior to the conclusion of the treaty of peace.

This last proposition was in effect an ultimatum to Spain, although

it was expressed in the form of a request rather than a demand. The American Commissioners expressed the hope that they might receive from the Spanish Commissioners on or before Monday, November 28th, definite and final acceptance of the proposals made as to the Philippines, together with a final acceptance of the stipulations as to Cuba, Porto Rico and the other Spanish islands of the West Indies, and Guam, in the form in which those demands had been provisionally agreed to. In the event of their acceptance the American Commissioners said that it would be possible for the joint commission to continue its sessions and proceed to the adjustment of subsidiary and incidental provisions that should form a part of the treaty of peace.

On November 28th the Spanish Peace Commission delivered to the American Commissioners the acceptance by Spain of the terms of the United States. This acceptance was accompanied by a memorandum setting forth that Spain yielded only to superior force.

Following is the Spanish official note summarizing the answer:

"The Spanish Commissioners, in view of the American terms submitted for their acceptance at the last session of the peace conference, have held consultations in order to give a prompt answer thereto. Instructed of their government they reassert the justice of their rights, which they have maintained in the past and will ever maintain. They recall the several attempts they have previously made with the view to finding in a compromise a common basis for discussion, and the fact that they have on two material points, where their view disagreed, suggested arbitration. These have been steadily rejected by the American Commissioners and a prompt answer made a condition of the continuation of negotiations. Recognizing the impossibility of further resisting their powerful antagonist and to save greater loss and hurt to Spain, the Commissioners, acting on the advice and instructions of the Madrid Government, now feel that no other course is open to them but to accept the victor's terms, however harsh, and to proceed to their acceptance as embodied in the last proposition relative to the Philippines, in order to have peace and to not break the Washington protocol."

On November 30th the joint peace commission discussed the first eight articles of the treaty of peace. These included the restitution of the archives of the surrendered territories, the liberation of prisoners, the mutual surrender of all claims arising prior to and after the signing of the protocol, including the American claim for the loss of the Maine, and the evacuation of the Philippines by the Spanish troops.

The treaty was finally drawn up and engrossed on the afternoon of December 10th. That evening the two peace commissions held a joint session and in the presence of the minor attaches of each board formally signed the paper which restored peace between the United States and Spain.

TREATY OF PEACE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND SPAIN.

The treaty of peace between the United States and Spain was at first comprised in eight articles containing the essential features of the agreement. These were afterwards subdivided into seventeen articles as follows:

The United States of America and her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain, in the name of her august son, Don Alfonso XIII., desiring to end the state of war now existing between the two countries, have for that purpose appointed as plenipotentiaries:

The President of the United States, William R. Day, Cushman K. Davis, William P. Frye, George Gray and Whitelaw Reid, citizens of the United States; and her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain, Don Eugenio Montero Rios, President of the Senate; Don Buenaventura de Abarzuza, Senator of the Kingdom and ex-Minister of the Crown; Don Jose de Garnica, Deputy to the Cortes and Associate Justice of the Supreme Court; Don Wenceslao Ramirez de Villa-Urrutia, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary at Brussels, and Don Rafael Cerero, General Division.

Who, having assembled in Paris, and having exchanged their full powers, which were found to be in due and proper form, have, after discussion of the matters before them, agreed upon the following articles:

Article I. Spain relinquishes all claim of sovereignty over and title to Cuba.

And as the island is, upon its evacuation by Spain, to be occupied by the United States, the United States will, so long as such occupation shall last, assume and discharge the obligations that may under international law result from the fact of its occupation, for the protection of life and property.

Article II. Spain cedes to the United States the Island of Porto Rico and other islands now under Spanish sovereignty in the West Indies and the Island of Guam in the Marianas or Ladrones.

Article III. Spain cedes to the United States the archipelago known as the Philippine Islands, and comprehending the islands lying within the following line:

A line running from west to east along or near the twentieth parallel of north latitude, and through the middle of the navigable channel of Bachi, from the one hundred and eighteenth (118th) to the one hundred and twenty-seventh (127th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, thence along the one hundred and twenty-seventh (127th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich to the parallel of four degrees and forty-five minutes (4° 45′) north latitude, thence along the parallel of four degrees and forty-five minutes (4° 45′) north latitude to its intersection with the meridian of longitude one hundred and nineteen degrees and thirty-five minutes (119° 35′) east of Greenwich, thence along the meridian of longitude one hundred and nineteen degrees and thirty-five minutes (119° 35′) east of Greenwich, to the parallel of latitude seven degrees and forty minutes (7° 40′) north, thence along the parallel of latitude seven degrees and forty minutes (7° 40′) north to its intersection with the one hundred and sixteenth (116th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, thence by a direct line to the intersection of the tenth (10th) degree parallel of north latitude with the one hundred and eighteenth (118th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, and thence along the one hundred and eighteenth (118th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich to the point of beginning.

The United States will pay to Spain the sum of twenty million dollars ($20,000,000) within three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty.

Article IV. The United States will, for the term of ten years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, admit Spanish ships and merchandise to the ports of the Philippine Islands on the same terms as ships and merchandise of the United States.

Article V. The United States will, upon the signature of the present treaty, send back to Spain, at its own cost, the Spanish soldiers taken as prisoners of war on the capture of Manila by the American

forces. The arms of the soldiers in question shall be restored to them.

Spain will, upon the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, proceed to evacuate the Philippines, as well as the island of Guam, on terms similar to those agreed upon by the commissioners appointed to arrange for the evacuation of Porto Rico and other islands in the West Indies under the protocol of August 12, 1898, which is to continue in force till its provisions are completely executed.

The time within which the evacuation of the Philippine Islands and Guam shall be completed shall be fixed by the two Governments. Stands of colors, uncaptured war vessels, small arms, guns of all calibres, with their carriages and accessories, powder, ammunition, live stock, and materials and supplies of all kinds, belonging to the land and naval forces of Spain in the Philippines and Guam, remain the property of Spain. Pieces of heavy ordnance, exclusive of field artillery, in the fortifications and coast defenses, shall remain in their emplacements for the term of six months, to be reckoned from the exchange of ratifications of the treaty; and the United States may, in the meantime, purchase such material from Spain, if a satisfactory agreement between the two Governments on the subject shall be reached.

Article VI. Spain will, upon the signature of the present treaty, release all prisoners of war, and all persons detained or imprisoned for political offenses, in connection with the insurrections in Cuba and the Philippines and the war with the United States.

Reciprocally the United States will release all persons made prisoners of war by the American forces, and will undertake to obtain the release of all Spanish prisoners in the hands of the insurgents in Cuba and the Philippines.

The Government of the United States will at its own cost return to Spain, and the Government of Spain will at its own cost return to the United States, Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, according to the situation of their respective homes, prisoners released or caused to be released by them, respectively, under this article.

Article VII. The United States and Spain mutually relinquish all claims for indemnity, national and individual, of every kind, of either Government, or of its citizens or subjects, against the other Government, that may have arisen since the beginning of the late insurrection in Cuba, and prior to the exchange of ratifications of the present treaty, including all claims for indemnity for the cost of the war.

The United States will adjudicate and settle the claims of its citizens against Spain relinquished in this article.

Article VIII. In conformity with the provisions of Articles I, II and III of this treaty, Spain relinquishes in Cuba, and cedes in Porto Rico and other islands in the West Indies, in the Island of Guam, and in the Philippine archipelago, all the buildings, wharves, barracks, forts, structures, public highways and other immovable property which, in conformity with law, belong to the public domain, and as such belong to the Crown of Spain.

And it is hereby declared that the relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, to which the preceding paragraph refers, cannot in any respect impair the property or rights which by law belong to the peaceful possession of property of all kinds, of provinces, municipalities, public or private establishments, ecclesiastical or civic bodies, or any other associations having legal capacity to acquire and possess property in the aforesaid territories renounced or ceded, or of private individuals, of whatsoever nationality such individuals may be.

The aforesaid relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, includes all documents exclusively referring to the sovereignty relinquished or ceded that may exist in the archives of the peninsula. Where any document in such archives only in part relates to said sovereignty, a copy of such part will be furnished whenever it shall be requested. Like rules shall be reciprocally observed in favor of Spain in respect of documents in the archives of the islands above referred to.

In the aforesaid relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, are also included such rights as the Crown of Spain and its authorities possess in respect of the official archives and records, executive as well as judicial, in the islands above referred to, which relate to said islands or the rights and property of their inhabitants. Such archives and records shall be carefully preserved, and private persons shall without distinction have the right to require, in accordance with law, authenticated copies of the contracts, wills and other instruments forming part of notarial protocols or files, or which may be contained in the executive or judicial archives, be the latter in Spain or in the islands aforesaid.

Article IX. Spanish subjects, natives of the peninsula, residing in the territory over which Spain by the present treaty relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty, may remain in such territory or may remove therefrom, retaining in either event all their rights of property, includ-

ing the right to sell or dispose of such property or of its proceeds; and they shall also have the right to carry on their industry, commerce and professions, being subject in respect thereof to such laws as are applicable to other foreigners. In case they remain in the territory they may preserve their allegiance to the Crown of Spain by making, before a court of record, within a year from the date of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty, a declaration of their decision to preserve such allegiance; in default of which declaration they shall be held to have renounced it and to have adopted the nationality of the territory in which they may reside.

The civil rights and political status of the native inhabitants of the territories hereby ceded to the United States shall be determined by the Congress.

Article X. The inhabitants of the territories over which Spain relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty shall be secured in the free exercise of their religion.

Article XI. The Spaniards residing in the territories over which Spain by this treaty cedes or relinquishes her sovereignty shall be subject in matters civil as well as criminal to the jurisdiction of the courts of the country wherein they reside, pursuant to the ordinary laws governing the same; and they shall have the right to appear before such courts and to pursue the same course as citizens of the country to which the courts belong.

Article XII. Judicial proceedings pending the time of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty in the territories over which Spain relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty shall be determined according to the following rules:

1. Judgments rendered either in civil suits between private individuals, or in criminal matters, before the date mentioned and with respect to which there is no recourse or right of review under the Spanish law, shall be deemed to be final, and shall be executed in due form by competent authority in the territory within which such judgments should be carried out.

2. Civil suits between private individuals which may on the date mentioned be undetermined shall be prosecuted to judgment before the court in which they may then be pending, or in the court that may be substituted therefor.

3. Criminal actions pending on the date mentioned before the Supreme Court of Spain against citizens of the territory, which by this treaty ceases to be Spanish shall continue under its jurisdiction until final judgment; but, such judgment having been rendered, the execution thereof shall be committed to the competent authority of the place in which the case arose.

Article XIII. The rights of property secured by copyrights and patents acquired by Spaniards in the Island de Cuba, and in Porto Rico, the Philippines and other ceded territories, at the time of the exchange of the ratification of this treaty, shall continue to be respected. Spanish scientific, literary and artistic works, not subversive of public order in the territories in question, shall continue to be admitted free of duty into such territories for the period of ten years, to be reckoned from the date of the exchange of the ratification of this treaty.

Article XIV. Spain shall have the power to establish consular offices in the ports and places of the territories, the sovereignty over which has been either relinquished or ceded by the present treaty.

Article XV. The Government of each country will, for the term of ten years, accord to the merchant vessels of the other country the same treatment in respect of all port charges, including entrance and clearance dues, light dues and tonnage duties, as it accords to its own merchant vessels, not engaged in the coastwise trade.

This article may at any time be terminated on six months' notice given by either Government to the other.

Article XVI. It is understood that any obligations assumed in this treaty by the United States with respect to Cuba are limited to the time of its occupancy thereof; but it will, upon the termination of such occupancy, advise any Government established in the island to assume the same obligations.

Article XVII. The present treaty shall be ratified by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by Her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain; and the ratification shall be exchanged at Washington within six months from the date hereof, or earlier if possible.

In faith whereof we, the respective plenipotentiaries, have signed this treaty and hereunto affixed our seals.

Done in duplicate at Paris, the tenth day of December, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety-eight.

William R. Day
C K Davis
Wm P Frye
Geo. Gray
Whitelaw Reid

EUGENIO MONTERO RIOS.
B. DE ABARAZUZA.
J. DE GARNICA.
W. R. DE VILLI-URRUTIA.
RAFAEL CERERO.

The treaty was ratified by the United States Senate on February 6th by a vote of 57 to 27, or one vote more than the necessary two-thirds. The vote in detail was as follows:

Yeas—Aldrich, Allen, Allison, Baker, Burrows, Butler, Carter, Chandler, Clark, Clay, Cullom, Davis, Deboe, Elkins, Fairbanks, Faulkner, Foraker, Frye, Gallinger, Gear, Gray, Hanna, Hansbrough, Harris, Hawley, Jones, Nev.; Kenney, Kyle, Lindsay, Lodge, McBride, McEnery, McLaurin, McMillan, Mantle, Mason, Morgan, Nelson, Penrose, Perkins, Pettus, Platt, Conn.; Platt, N. Y.; Pritchard, Quay, Ross, Sewell, Shoup, Simon, Spooner, Stewart, Sullivan, Teller, Thurston, Warren, Wellington, Wolcott—57.

Nays—Bacon, Bate, Berry, Caffery, Chilton, Cockrell. Daniel, Gor-

man, Hale, Heitfeld, Hoar, Jones, Ark.; Mallory, Martin, Mills, Mitchell, Money, Murphy, Pasco, Pettigrew, Rawlins, Roach, Smith, Tillman, Turley, Turner, Vest—27.

Absent and paired—Messrs. Cannon and Wilson for, with White against, and Messrs. Proctor and Wetmore for, with Mr. Turpie against.

Politically analyzed the vote was as follows: Yeas—Republicans 43, Democrats 9, Populists and silverites 5. Nays—Republicans 2, Democrats 21, Populists and silverites 4.

The peace treaty was signed by President McKinley on February 10th.

Public sentiment throughout the country was greatly divided on the treaty and at one time its opponents felt sure of preventing ratification. One important factor in securing votes in favor of ratification was the news of the beginning of hostilities with the Filipinos on the previous day.

The treaty was presented to the Spanish Cortes, but was not ratified by that body. It was claimed that the Queen Regent and Sagasta had attempted to inject politics into the matter, hence the refusal of the Cortes to ratify.

Anticipating that it would be extremely doubtful to get the treaty ratified by the Cortes the American Commission required the insertion in the treaty of Article 17, that "the present treaty shall be ratified by the President of the United States by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by her Majesty, the Queen Regent of Spain."

On March 16th the Queen Regent signed the decree dissolving the Cortes and on March 17, 1899, affixed her signature to the treaty of peace.

SOMETHING LACKING.

Uncle Sam—"Well, sonny, what is it?"
Phil Ippines—"Where do I come in on this?"—Minneapolis Journal.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

POETRY OF THE WAR.

THE Spanish war was a great inspiration to the poets of the country and many stirring poems were the result. While many volumes would be required to publish them, some of the best and most appropriate are herewith presented.

THE REG'LAR ARMY MAN.

HE AIN'T no gold-laced "Belvidere,"
Ter sparkle in the sun;
He don't parade with gay cockade,
And posies in his gun;
He ain't no "pretty soldier boy,"
So lovely, spick and span;
He wears a crust of tan and dust,
The Reg'lar Army man;
The marchin', parchin',
Pipe-clay starchin',
Reg'lar Army man.

He ain't at home in Sunday-school,
Nor yet a social tea;
And on the day he gets his pay
He's apt ter spend it free;
He ain't no temp'rance advocate;
He likes ter fill the can;
He's kinder rough an', maybe, tough,
The Reg'lar Army man;
The rarin', tarin',
Sometimes swearin',
Reg'lar Army man.

No State'll call him "noble son!"
He ain't no ladies' pet,
But let a row start anyhow,
They'll send for him, you bet!
He don't cut any ice at all
In fash'n's social plan;
He gits the job ter face a mob,
The Reg'lar Army man;
The millin', drillin',
Made for killin',
Reg'lar Army man.

They ain't no tears shed over him
When he goes off ter war;
He gits no speech nor prayerful "preach"
From Mayor or Governor;
He packs his little knapsack up
And trots off in the van,
Ter start the fight and start it right,
The Reg'lar Army man;
The rattlin', battlin',
Colt or Gatlin',
Reg'lar Army man.

He makes no fuss about the job,
He don't talk big or brave,
He knows he's in ter fight and win
Or help fill up a grave;
He ain't no "mamma's darlin'," but
He does the best he can;
And he's the chap that wins the scrap,
The Reg'lar Army man;
The dandy, handy,
Cool and sandy,
Reg'lar Army man.

—Joe Lincoln.

THE WARSHIP DIXIE.

THEY'VE named a cruiser "Dixie"
—that's what the papers say—
An' I hears they're goin' to man her
with the boys that wore the gray;
Good news! It sorter thrills me and
makes me want ter be
Whar' the ban' is playing "Dixie,"
and the "Dixie" puts ter sea!

They've named a cruiser "Dixie."
An' fellers, I'll be boun'
You're goin' ter see some fightin'
when the "Dixie" swings
aroun'!
Ef any o' them Spanish ships shall
strike her, East or West,
Just let the ban' play "Dixie," an' the
boys'll do the rest!

I want ter see that "Dixie"—I want
ter take my stan'
On the deck of her and holler, "Three
cheers fer Dixie lan'!"
She means we're all united—the war
hurts healed away.
An' " 'Way Down South in Dixie" is
national to-day!

I bet you she's a good un! I'll stake
my last red cent
Thar ain't no better timber in the
whole blame settlement!
An' all their shiny battleships beside
that ship are tame,
Fer when it comes to "Dixie" thar's
something in a name!

Here's three cheers and a tiger—as
hearty as kin be;
An' let the ban' play "Dixie" when
the "Dixie" puts ter sea!
She'll make her way an' win the day
from shinin' East ter West—
Jest let the ban' play "Dixie," and
the boys'll do the rest!
—Frank L. Stanton.

A TOAST TO COMMODORE DEWEY.

At a dinner given to Commodore George Dewey at the Metropolitan Club, Washington, November 27, 1897, just before he started for the Asiatic station, the following prophetic toast was offered, and received with enthusiasm:

FILL all your glasses full to-night;
The wind is off the shore;
And be it feast or be it fight,
We pledge the Commodore.

Through days of storm, through days
of calm,
On broad Pacific seas,
At anchor off the Isles of Palm.
Or with the Japanese;

Ashore, afloat, on deck, below,
Or where our bull dogs roar,
To back a friend or breast a foe
We pledge the Commodore.

We know our honor'll be unstained,
Where'er his pennant flies;
Our rights respected and maintained,
Whatever power defies.

And when he takes the homeward
tack,
Beneath an admiral's flag,
We'll hail the day that brings him
back,
And have another jag.

YANKEE DEWEY.

YANKEE DEWEY went to sea,
Sailing on a cruiser,
He took along for company,
Of men and guns, a few, sir.

Yankee Dewey; Ha! Ha! Ha!
Dewey, you're a dandy;
With men and guns and cruisers, too,
You're certainly quite handy.

He sailed away to the Philippines,
With orders for to snatch them,
And thrash the Spaniards right and
left,
Wherever he could catch them.

And Yankee Dewey did it, too,
He did it so complete, sir,
That not a blooming ship is left,
Of all that Spanish fleet, sir.

Oh, Yankee Dewey, you're a peach,
A noble, gallant tar, sir;
You're "out of sight," you're out of reach,
We hail you from afar, sir.

We greet you with three rousing cheers,
For you and your brave crews, sir;
For the deeds you've done and the victory won,
For Yankee Doodle Doo, sir.

Yankee Dewey, keep it up,
You certainly are handy,
With men and guns and cruisers, too,
Oh, Dewey, you're a dandy.
—O. H. Cole.

CAMP CALLS.

To the various camp bugle calls soldiers attach words that reflect this "soldier's privilege" of grumbling to the rhythm of the calls. The following are sample jingles:

I CAN'T git 'em up!
I can't git 'em up!
I can't git 'em up in the morning.
I can't git 'em up,
I can't git 'em up,
I can't git 'em up at all!
The corporal's worse than the sergeant,
The sergeant's worse than lieutenant,
And the captain's the worst of all!

* * *

Go to the stable,
All ye that are able,
And give your horses some corn.
For if you don't do it,
The captain will know it,
And give you the devil
As sure as you're born!

* * *

Oh, where has that cook gone,
Cook gone,
Cook gone;
Where has that cook gone?
Where the aitch is he-e-e?

Twenty years till dinner time,
Dinner time,
Dinner time,
Twenty years till dinner time,
So it seems to me-e-e!

* * *

Come and git your quinine,
Quinine, quinine, quinine!
Come and git your quinine,
And your pills!

* * *

Soupy, soupy, soup—
Without any beans!
An' coffee, coffee, coffee—
The meanest ever seen!

THE FLAG GOES BY.

HATS off!
Along the street there comes
A blare of bugles, a ruffle of drums,
A flash of color beneath the sky:
Hats off!
The flag is passing by!
Blue and crimson and white it shines
Over the steel-tipped, ordered lines,
Hats off!
The colors before us fly!
But more than the flag is passing by,
Sea-fights and land-fights grim and great,
Fought to make and to save the state;
Cheers of victory on dying lips;

Weary marches and sinking ships;
Days of plenty and years of peace
March of a strong land's swift increase;
Equal justice, right and law,
Stately honor and reverend awe;
Sign of a nation great and strong,
To ward her people from foreign wrong;
Pride and glory and honor, all
Live in the colors to stand or fall.
Hats off!

WHEELER AT SANTIAGO.

INTO the thick of the fight he went,
pallid and sick and wan,
Borne in an ambulance to the front,
a ghostly wisp of a man;
But the fighting soul of a fighting man, approved in the long ago,
Went to the front in that ambulance, and the body of Fighting Joe.

Out from the front they were coming back, smitten of Spanish shells—
Wounded boys from the Vermont hills and the Alabama dells;
"Put them into this ambulance; I'll ride to the front," he said,
And he climbed to the saddle and rode right on, that little old ex-Confed.

From end to end of the long blue ranks rose up the ringing cheers,
And many a powder-blackened face was furrowed with sudden tears,
As with flashing eyes and gleaming sword, and hair and beard of snow,
Into the hell of shot and shell rode little old Fighting Joe!

Sick with fever and racked with pain, he could not stay away,
For he heard the song of the yesteryears in the deep-mouthed cannon's bay—
He heard in the calling song of the guns there was work for him to do,
Where his country's best blood splashed and flowed 'round the old Red, White and Blue.

Fevered body and hero heart! This Union's heart to you
Beats out in love and reverence—and to each dear boy in blue
Who stood or fell 'mid the shot and shell, and cheered in the face of the foe,
As, wan and white, to the heart of the fight rode little old Fighting Joe!

—James Lindsay Gordon.

BIRTH OF THE FLAG.

IN THE camp where the heroes had gathered 'round Liberty's altar alight,
The Spirit of Freedom in anguish abode through the perilous night,
And the joy that is only a mother's, filled her heart at the burst of the morn—
Encradled in war's red manger—a child among nations was born.
Clasped in the arms that shall shield him, the suckling waxed lusty and fair,
Safe as the cub of a grizzly when the dam guards the mouth of the lair;
Grew in his strength and his beauty, grew in his pride and his worth—
Pride of the mother that bore him, peer of the prides of the earth.

For sign that all others may know
him, for sign that his people
are free,
For his camps and his courts and his
temples, for emblem on land
and on sea,
This gift from the spirit that bore him,
that brought him from dark-
ness to light:
"Alike to thine honor unsullied, keep
ever these ribbons of white;
To cherish the valor of freemen, in
token of blood they have shed,
To herald thy wrath and thy power,
are given these streamers of
red;
From the skies that shall smile on thy
fortunes, I have taken this
union of blue
And decked it with stars that shall
guide thee, for the stars in their
courses are true."

To honor that banner uplifted, his
people anear and afar,
The faithful who serve him in coun-
sel, the fearless who serve him
in war,
The strong ones who sweat o'er their
labor, the rugged ones fresh
from the soil,
The stout ones who buy, sell, and bar-
ter the bountiful fruitage of toil,
Came from their homes and their har-
vests, came from their marts
and their hives.
And, proving the love that they bore
it, gave pledge of their fortunes
and lives
That it should be refuge from tyrants;
it has been and ever shall be,
And the slave that shall seek it for
shelter, shall rise without
chains and be free.

—Richard Linthicum.

HOL' DEM PHILUPPINES.

MISTAH DEWEY, yo's all right,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
Made yo' point an' won yo' fight,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
If dem natives get too gay
Make dem walk de Spanish way,
Show dem dat yo's come to stay,
Hol' dem Philuppines!

Doctah Dewey, doan' yo' care,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
Let dat German ge'man swear,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
Reckon dat yo' saw dem first,
Jus' yo' say to wienerwurst:
"Come en take dem if yo' durst!"
Hol' dem Philuppines!

'Fesser Dewey, yo' is wa'am,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
Reckon yo' can ride de storm,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
Tell him dat yo' will not grieve
If old Diederichs should leave—
Keep dat razzar up yo' sleeve,
Hol' dem Philuppines!

A'm'al Dewey, watch yo' kyards,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
Folks all sen' yo' best regyards,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
Make dem fo'iners lay low,
If dey 'sist to pester so,
Make dem take dah clothes en' go,
Hol' dem Philuppines!

—George V. Hobart.

THE BRAVEST SAILOR OF ALL.

I KNOW a naval officer, the bravest
fighting man;
He wears a jaunty sailor suit, his cap
says "Puritan."

And all day long he sails a ship between our land and Spain,
And he avenges, every hour, the martyrs of the "Maine."

His warship is six inches square, a washtub serves for ocean;
But never yet, on any coast, was seen such dire commotion.
With one skilled move his boat is sent from Cuba to midsea,
And just as quickly back it comes to set Havana free.

He fights with Dewey; plants his flag upon each island's shore,
Then off with Sampson's fleet he goes to shed the Spanish gore.
He comes to guard New England's coast, but ere his anchor falls,
He hurries off in frightful speed, to shell Manila's walls.

The Philippines so frequently have yielded to his power,
There's very little left of them, I'm certain, at this hour;
And when at last he falls asleep, it is to wake again
And hasten into troubled seas and go and conquer Spain.

—Ella Wheeler Wilcox.

OUR SOLDIER'S SONG.

"When the destruction of Cervera's fleet became known before Santiago the soldiers cheered wildly, and, with one accord, through miles of trenches, began singing 'The Star Spangled Banner.'"

SINGING "The Star Spangled Banner"
In the very jaws of death!
Singing our glorious anthem,
Some with their latest breath!

The strains of that solemn music
Through the spirit will ever roll,
Thrilling with martial ardor
The depths of each patriot soul.

Hearing the hum of the bullets!
Eager to charge the foe!
Biding the call to battle,
Where crimson heart streams flow!
Thinking of home and dear ones,
Of mother, of child, of wife,
They sang "The Star Spangled Banner"
On that field of deadly strife.

They sang with the voices of heroes,
In the face of the Spanish guns,
As they leaned on their loaded rifles,
With the courage that never runs.
They sang to our glorious emblem,
Upraised on that war worn sod,
As the saints in the old arena
Sang a song of praise to God.

—David Graham Adee.

THE DISINTEGRATION OF A MULE.

"Our fleet engaged the enemy in a brilliant combat. The battle is a brilliant page in Spanish history. The Spanish Minister of Marine said that it was difficult for him to restrain his joyful emotions."—Spanish Dispatches.

ALL HAIL the sailors brave and cool
Of Dewey's bold flotilla;
For Spain has lost another mule
Away off in Manila.

A piece of shell took off his tail,
He grinned the shattered bomb at.
"It is our fleet," he said, "that meet
The foe in brilliant combat."

A solid shot took off his ears;
He smiled a smile of mystery,
And said, "This will turn out a
Brilliant page in Spanish history."

His larboard legs were shot away,
Yet still with smile sarcastic,
"I am not mad," he said, "or sad;
I'm just enthusiastic."

Another shot! What fragments those
That littered up the bay so?
That mule so coy just died of joy—
The Spanish papers say so.
—Harry B. Smith.

THE OREGON.

TURN back thy prow, O Oregon,
Toward thy Western home;
No foeman's ship will bar thy way,
Or cross thy track of foam.
By day, by night, like hounds in leash
No more thy engines strain
To reach the sepulchre where sleeps
Thy sister ship, the Maine.

Oh, nobly hast thou played thy part—
Though half the world away,
Like arrow to its mark ye sped,
To join and win the fray.
Go back, O Oregon, in peace;
'Mid wondrous deeds, and bold,
Thy rush of fourteen thousand miles
Shall evermore be told.
—Ninette M. Lowater.

EIGHT LONG MILES TO SIBONEY.

IT'S eight long miles to Siboney—
You've got to walk or lie;
For there's them that's wounded worse'n you
In the carts that's jolting by—
The carts that's jolting by—good Lord!
Packed full of battered men.
And I guess their girls won't know them
If they see them home again.

It's eight long miles to Siboney—
And the road ain't of the best.
That's far enough, God knows, between
A strong man and his rest!
But when you've fought through hell all day,
And your wounds is stiff and sore,
Why, you've had your fill of hardships,
And you don't want any more.

We're human ammunition,
And we're spent like shot or shell—
But we're winning for the Government,
And they'd ought to treat us well.
But maybe they get reckless,
And they goes it kind of blind,
For they knows there's plenty more like us
That's pressing up behind.

Oh, Uncle Sam! we take our pay,
And we'd better work than talk—
But it's eight long miles to Siboney,
And wounded has to walk.
You needn't spare us fighting,
For we ain't afraid to die—
But take care of those that's hurted now,
And they'll serve you by and by.
—Caroline Duer.

THE OLD FLAG FOREVER.

SHE'S up there—Old Glory—where lightnings are sped;
She dazzles the nations with ripples of red;

And she'll wave for us living, or droop
o'er us dead—
The flag of our country forever!

She's up there—Old Glory—how
bright the stars stream!
And the stripes like red signals of lib-
erty gleam!
And we dare for her, living, or dream
the last dream
'Neath the flag of our country forever!

She's up there—Old Glory—no ty-
rant-dealt scars
Nor blur on her brightness, no stain
on her stars!
The brave blood of heroes hath crim-
soned her bars—
She's the flag of our country forever!
—Frank L. Stanton in Atlanta Con-
stitution.

VICTOR BLUE.

"Mole St. Nicholas, June 13.—Lieutenant Blue just returned after a detour of seventy statute miles' observation of the harbor of Santiago de Cuba. He reports Spanish fleet is all there."—Sampson.

VICTOR BLUE! What a name it is
For a deed of old renown—
How it stirs the blood, how the fancy
wakes
And brushes the cobwebs down!

Why, you see the flag, its stars and
stripes,
You hear the bugles play,
And you know some deed of desperate
need
Has come to blaze the way!

Admiral Sampson paced his deck,
With troubled brow and eye,
While the lights of Santiago flared
Afar against the sky!

He knew that there, in the inner bay,
In a fancied safe retreat,
The Spanish admiral, close and snug,
Had taken his hunted fleet.

But which were the ships and where
they swung
Far back in the winding strait,
Was a little point he wanted to fix
For the pending joint debate!

A light came into the Admiral's eye—
His clouded brow grew free
As he said to his orderly waiting
there—
"Send Lieutenant Blue to me!"

In the shadow that night a little craft
Slipped off from the flagship's side,
And, turning, steered for the Cuban
shore,
Borne in on the Carib tide—

And Victor Blue was there alone,
Serene and well content—
Rejoiced at heart to be off again
On the Spanish fox's scent.

He cut the brush—he forged the
swamp
In a trackless, wide detour—
But the hills, to the rear of the 'leag-
uered town,
Were his box and compass sure.

He heard the sudden clatter of
hoofs—
He crouched in the tropic grass—
Then he saw two sabred and booted
Dons,
With a strange oath, come and
pass!

On through the rank, thick under-
brush
He cut and burrowed his way
Till he caught, thro' the tall palmetto
trees,
A gleam of the distant bay;

Higher he climbed—and higher still
He crept to the towering knoll—
When, lo! beneath him the harbor lay
Like a long, indented bowl!

Need I tell the rest?—how the news came back
To Sampson and gallant Schley;
How Blue had focused Cervera's fleet
With his own—and his good friend's—eye?

How he came through the perils of instant death—
The death of the hangman's noose—
Unravelling quite, with his double sight,
The Spanish admiral's ruse?

How he told the names of the hiding ships
In the cays of the winding strait,
And settled a doubtful point or two
For the pending joint debate!
—John Jerome Rooney.

M'ILRATH OF MALATE.

Acting Sergeant J. A. McIlrath, Battery H, Third Artillery (Regulars); enlisted from New York; fifteen years' service.

YES, yes, my boy, there's no mistake,
You put the contract through!
You lads with Shafter, I'll allow,
Were heroes, tried and true;

But don't forget the men who fought
About Manila Bay,
And don't forget brave McIlrath,
Who died at Malaté.

There was an act to sing about—
An eighteen-carat deed,
To shine beside the sister gem
Of Switzer Winkelried!

Yes, I was with him, saw him—well,
You want to hear it all—
It is a braver story than
A mighty city's fall!

The night was black, save where the forks
Of tropic lightning ran,
When, with a long, deep thunder-roar,
The typhoon storm began.

Then, suddenly above the din,
We heard the steady bay
Of volleys from the trenches where
The Pennsylvanians lay.

The Tenth, we thought, could hold their own
Against the feigned attack,
And, if the Spaniards dared advance,
Would pay them doubly back.

But soon we mark'd the volleys sink
Into a scatter'd fire—
And, now we heard the Spanish gun
Boom nigher yet and nigher!

Then, like a ghost, a courier
Seemed past our picket toss'd
With wild hair streaming in his face—
"We're lost—we're lost—we're lost!"

"Front, front—in God's name—front!" he cried:
"Our ammunition's gone!"
He turned a face of dazed dismay—
And thro' the night sped on!

"Men, follow me!" cried McIlrath,
Our acting Sergeant then;
And when he gave the word he knew
He gave the word to men!

Twenty there—not one man more—
But down the sunken road
We dragged the guns of Battery H,
Nor even stopped to load!

Sudden, from out the darkness poured
A storm of Mauser hail—
But not a man there thought to pause,
Nor any man to quail!

Ahead, the Pennsylvanians' guns
In scatter'd firing broke;
The Spanish trenches, red with flame,
In fiercer volleys spoke!

Down with a rush our twenty came—
The open field we pass'd—
And in among the hard-press'd Tenth
We set our feet at last!

Up, with a leap, sprang McIlrath,
Mud-spatter'd, worn and wet,
And, in an instant, there he stood
High on the parapet!

"Steady, boys! we've got 'em now—
Only a minute late!
It's all right, lads—we've got 'em whipped.
Just give 'em volleys straight!"

Then, up and down the parapet
With head erect he went,
As cool as when he sat with us
Beside our evening tent!

Not one of us, close shelter'd there
Down in the trench's pen,
But felt that he would rather die
Than shame or grieve him then!

The fire, so close to being quench'd
In panic and defeat,
Leap'd forth, by rapid volleys sped,
In one long deadly sheet!

A cheer went up along the line
As breaks the thunder call—
But, as it rose, great God! we saw
Our gallant Sergeant fall!

He sank into our outstretch'd arms
Dead—but immortal grown;
And Glory brighten'd where he fell,
And valor claim'd her own!

—John Jerome Rooney.

THE MISSING ONE.

I DON'T think I'll go into town to see the boys come back;
My bein' there would do no good in all that jam and pack;
There'll be enough to welcome them —to cheer them when they come
A-marchin' bravely to the time that's beat upon the drum—
They'll never miss me in the crowd—not one of 'em will care
If, when the cheers are ringin' loud, I'm not among them there.

I went to see them march away—I hollered with the rest,
And didn't they look fine, that day, a-marchin' four abreast,
With my boy James up near the front, as handsome as could be,
And wavin' back a fond farewell to mother and to me!
I vow my old knees trimbled so, when they had all got by,
I had to jist set down upon the curb-stone there and cry.

And now they're comin' home again! The record that they won
Was sich as shows we still have men, when men's work's to be done!
There wasn't one of 'em that flinched, each feller stood the test—
Wherever they were sent they sailed right in and done their best!
They didn't go away to play—they knowed what was in store—
But there's a grave somewhere to-day, down on the Cuban shore!

I guess that I'll not go to town to see
the boys come in;
I don't jist feel like mixin' up in all
that crush and din!
There'll be enough to welcome them
—to cheer them when they
come
A-marchin' bravely to the time that's
beat upon the drum,
And the boys'll never notice—not a
one of 'em will care,
For the soldier that would miss me
ain't a-goin' to be there!
—S. E. Kiser.

THE NEW ALABAMA.

THAR'S a bran' new "Alabama"
that they're fittin' out for sea,
An' them that's seen her tell me she's
as lively as kin be;
An' them big Havana gin'ruls better
open wide their gates
Ef she's any like her namesake of the
old Confed'rit States!

A bran' new "Alabama!" She orter
be the best
That ever plowed a furrow in the
ocean—east or west!
An' I'm shore that she'll be heard
from—jest open wide your
gates
Ef she's any like her namesake of the
old Confed'rit States!

I bet she's full o' sperrit! I bet her
guns'll keep
The Spanish cruisers huntin' fer a har-
bor on the deep!
She'll storm the forts an' take 'em—
she'll batter down the gates
Ef she's any like her namesake of the
old Confed'rit States!

A TOAST TO OUR SHIPS.

WHY do our battleships scour the
main,
What need of big cruisers to thrash
old Spain
When we have a surplus of Yankee
pluck,
And the Hist, the Hornet and Wam-
patuck?

The Spaniards scoffed at our navy of
tugs,
Manned by ignorant sailors and
thugs;
But a different tune is sung since they
struck
The Hist, the Hornet and Wampa-
tuck.

They blockade, cut cables, pass forts
and fight;
They are in it at all times, day or
night,
And Hidalgoes flee when these three
run amuck,
The Hist, the Hornet and Wampa-
tuck.

A toast to brave Jungen, Helm and
Young,
May their praises loud and long be
sung;
One foot on the table, boys, "Here's
luck"
To the Hist, the Hornet and Wam-
patuck.

THE HERO DOWN BELOW.

IN THE awful heat and torture
Of the fires that leap and dance
In and out the furnace doors that
never close,
On in silence he must work,
For with him there's ne'er a chance
On his brow to feel the outer breeze
that blows.

For they've locked him in a room,
Down below,
In a burning, blazing tomb,
Down below,
Where he cannot see the sky,
Cannot learn in time to fly,
When destruction stalketh nigh,
Down below.

Though his name is never mentioned,
Though we see or know him not,
Though his deeds may never bring
him worldly fame,
He's a man above the others—
And the bravest of the lot—
And the hero of the battle, just the
same.

He's the man who does the work,
Down below,
From the labor does not shirk,
Down below,
He is shoveling day and night,
Feeding flames a-blazing bright,
Keeping up a killing fight,
Down below.

MISTER SOJER MAN.

I AIN'T got time ter fool wid you,
Mister Sojer Man;
Never did look good in blue,
Mister Sojer Man.
'Sides dat, I got my wuk ter do—
Feed myse'f en' fambly, too;
Ain't got time ter fool wid you,
Mister Sojer Man!

Go 'long now en' fight yo' fight,
Mister Sojer Man;
Fling dem bombshells lef' en' right,
Mister Sojer Man.
Got ter hoe dat cotton white,
Keep dat nutgrass out er sight;
Go 'long now, en' fight yo' fight,
Mister Sojer Man!

TO ADMIRAL SCHLEY.

HAIL! Hero of our Southern battle seas!
No wreath of crumbling laurel
leaves thy brow entwines;
America would mete thee more enduring fame,
And in her heart thy name and deed
enshrines.

"PRIVATE JONES."

I USED to boss him in the store
And oversee his work,
For I had charge of one whole floor
And he was just a clerk.
To-day it's different, if you please;
We've changed respective pegs,
I'm private in the ranks—and he's
Got stripes
Down
His
Legs.

The girls, whose smiles were once for
me,
Now scarce vouchsafe a glance,
Such great attraction can they see
In decorated pants.
The erstwhile clerk no longer my
Indulgence humble begs.
I'm down below. He's up on high,
With stripes
Down
His
Legs.

It's "Private Jones, do this and that."
In haste I must bestir—
To Jenkins, on whom oft I've sat,
I'm told to answer "Sir!"
One born to rule, it's come to pass
Of woe I drink the dregs—
I'm in the army with, alas!
No stripes
Down
My
Legs.

—Edwin L. Sabin.

HOBSON AND HIS CHOSEN SEVEN.

COME, kings and queens the world around,
Whose power and fame all climes resound!
Come, sailors bold and soldiers brave,
Whose names shall live beyond the grave!
Come, men and women, come, boys and girls,
Wherever our flag to the breeze unfurls!
Come one, come all, let none stand back,
Come, praise the men of the Merrimac!
Out from the water, out from the fire,
Out from the jaws of death most dire!
Far up in the fame and light of heaven,
See Hobson with his chosen seven!

THE NEGRO SOLDIER.

WE USED to think the negro didn't count for very much—
Light-fingered in the melon patch, and chicken yard, and such;
Much mixed in point of morals and absurd in point of dress,
The butt of droll cartoonists and target of the press;
But we've got to reconstruct our views on color, more or less,
Now we know about the Tenth at La Guasima!

When a rain of shot was falling, with a song upon his lips,
In the horror where such gallant lives went out in death's eclipse,
Face to face with Spanish bullets, on the slope of San Juan,
The negro soldier showed himself another type of man;
Read the story of his courage, coldly, carelessly, who can—
The story of the Tenth at La Guasima!

We have heaped the Cuban soil above their bodies, black and white—
The strangely sorted comrades of that grand and glorious fight—
And many a fair-skinned volunteer goes whole and sound to-day
For the succor of the colored troops, the battle records say,
And the feud is done forever, of the blue coat and the gray—
All honor to the Tenth at La Guasima!

—B. M. Channing.

TAPS.

TAPS—for the day is finished,
And the moon, in her silvery light,
Whips up from the low horizon
To the star-flecked clouds of night.

Taps—and the day's hard duty
Is o'er, and the time for rest
Sounds forth in its pointed cadence,
And the blowing bugler's blest.

Taps—their duty is ended.
The dead lie side by side.
"Lights out" the bugler's sounding
As they start on their long last ride.

Such is their journey homeward—
To "taps" o'er the broken sod,
To wake on the morn with souls new born
At the "reveille" of God.

—Henry Edward Wallace, Jr.

THE COWARD.

HIT? Yes, I wuz hit, but then
So wuz lots of other men.
Don't feel much like braggin', fer
All the rest wuz braver, sir.
When the fierun' begun,
Somethin' whispered, "Cut an' run!"
Chances wuz that either I
Would have to skip, or stay an' die.
Then the thought of mother came,
An' I didn't feel the same—
Seemed to starch me up a bit,
An'—in a minit I wuz hit.
Mother she wuz brave, you see—
Father died when I wuz three—
Worked, she did, both day an' night
To keep the boy he left fixed right.
'Member when I wuzn't well,
How she watched an' dosed me, tel
I wuz up an' 'round again.
Medicine wuz bitter then,
An' mother'd say, "You, Willie, stan'
An' take your pellet like a man!"
When the shots wuz thick that day,
An' Jimmie Brewer by me lay
Limp an' bleedin' in the sand,
An' I heered the Cap's command—
"Steady, boys, an' fire low!"—
Seemed to feel my courage go;
Almost wisht I hadn't come;
Almost wisht I wuz to hum;
Then—an' Lord, it sounded queer!—
In the din I seemed to hear
Mother, sayin', "Willie, stan'
An' take your bullet like a man!"

—Richard R. Wightman.

REVEILLE.

THE morning is cheery, my boys, arouse!
The dew shines bright on the chestnut boughs,
And the sleepy mist on the river lies,
Though the east is flushing with crimson dyes.
Awake! awake! awake!
O'er field and wood and brake,
With glories newly born,
Comes on the blushing morn.
Awake! awake!

You have dreamed of your homes and your friends all night;
You have basked in your sweethearts' smiles so bright;
Come, part with them all for awhile again—
Be lovers in dreams; when awake, be men.
Turn out! turn out! turn out!
You have dreamed full long I know,
Turn out! turn out! turn out!
The east is all aglow.
Turn out! turn out!

From every valley and hill there come
The clamoring voices of fife and drum;
And out on the fresh, cool morning air
The soldiers are swarming everywhere.
Fall in! fall in! fall in!
Every man in his place.
Fall in! fall in! fall in!
Each with a cheerful face.
Fall in! fall in!

—Michael O'Connor.

"DO NOT CHEER."

After the Spanish fleet had struck its colors off the harbor of Santiago on July 3d, Captain Philip, of the battleship Texas, ordered his crew not to cheer. He assembled his men and gave thanks to God for the victory which we had that day gained.

THE smoke hangs heavy o'er the sea,
Beyond the storm-swept battle line,
Where floats the flag of Stripes and Stars,
Triumphant o'er the shattered foe.
The walls of Morro thunder still their fear;
Helpless, a mass of flame, the foeman drifts,
And o'er her decks the flag of white.
Hushed voices pass the word from lip to lip,
And grimy sailors silent stand beside the guns,
"Cease firing. An enemy is dying. Do not cheer."

"An enemy is dying. Do not cheer."
Thy servants' glorious tribute to Thy name,
Christ, Lord, who rules the battle well,
Who, watching, guards our destinies,
And seeth e'en the sparrows fall.
Redly, through drifting smoke, the sun looks down
On silent guns and shot-pierced bloody wreck,
Long lines of weary men, with heads bowed low,
Give thanks, in presence of Thy reaper grim.
Thy will be done, O Lord, Thou rulest all.

—J. Herbert Stevens.

IN MEMORIAM.

It was a strange coincidence, and a fitting end for a noble old seaman who had given his life to the service of his country, that Rear Admiral W. A. Kirkland, U. S. N., and late commandant at Mare Island, Cal., should die the day peace was declared.

CEASE firing!" Lo, the bugles call—
"Cease!" and the red flame dies away.
The thunders sleep; along the gray
Smoke-shrouded hills the echoes fall.

"Cease firing!" Close the columns, fold
Their shattered wings; the weary troops
Now stand at ease; the ensign droops;
The heated chargers' flanks turn cold.

"Cease firing!" Down, with point reversed.
The reeking, crimson saber drips;
Cool grow the fevered cannon's lips—
Their wreathing vapors far dispersed.

"Cease firing!" From the sponson's rim
The mute, black muzzles frown across
The sea, where swelling surges toss
The armored squadrons, silent, grim.

"Cease firing!" Look, white banners show
Along the graves where heroes sleep—
Above the graves where men lie deep—
In pure soft flutterings of snow.

"Cease firing!" Glorious and sweet
For country 'tis to die—and comes
The Peace—and bugles blow and drums
Are sounding out the Last Retreat.

—Thomas R. Gregory, U. S. N.

THE TORPEDO-BOAT.

SHE'S a floating boiler crammed with fire and steam;
A toy, with dainty works like any watch;
A working, weaving basketful of tricks—
Eccentric, cam and lever, cog and notch.
She's a dashing, lashing, tumbling shell of steel,
A headstrong, kicking, nervous, plunging beast;
A long, lean ocean liner—trimmed down small;
A bucking broncho harnessed for the East.
She can rear and toss and roll
Your body from your soul,
And she's most unpleasant wet—to say the least!

But see her slip in, sneaking down, at night;
All a-tremble, deadly, silent—Satan-sly.
Watch her gather for the rush, and catch her breath!
See her dodge the wakeful cruiser's sweeping eye.
Hear the humming! Hear her coming! Coming fast!
(That's the sound might make men wish they were at home,
Hear the rattling Maxim, barking rapid fire),
See her loom out through the fog with bows afoam!
Then some will wish for land—
They'd be sand fleas in the sand
Or yellow grubs reposing in the loam.

—James Barnes.

A STIRRUP CUP.

A Song for the War Correspondent.

A HEALTH all round ere the last bell rings,
Ere the signals shift and the whistle sings;
There's a moment yet while the trains delay,
We've turned life loose on the world to-day!
On an unknown quest for East or West,
East or West on the unknown way.

For some went South when the Cuban rose,
And some turned North to the Yukon snows.
By sledge or steamer, by mail or freight,
From the Koord Kabul to the Golden Gate,
We've gone the rounds of the world-wide bounds,
From the Hoang-Ho to Magellan Strait.

We stood by the guns when the impi broke,
And the field glass strained through the whirling smoke;
We scrawled the dispatch by the thorn-bush fire,
Then a hundred miles to the telegraph wire!
A ride by night, from the field or fight,
A rattling scoop or an Angel Choir!

When the bucks broke loose from the tribe reserve,
We sketched the scalping, and saw them swerve
When the pistols cracked and the rush was stayed

By the crackling line of the News Brigade.
Up the Peace with the Plains Police—
In the Alkali hell our bones are laid.

The big gong clangs from the depot wall;
The whistles shriek and the signals fall;
Around the curve and along the bay—
We're out once more on the open way.
East or West, or cursed or blessed,
We've turned life loose on the world to-day.

—Frank L. Pollock.

HOSANNAH AND HUZZAH.

ERE ever the guns are silenced;
Ere ever the mandate, Peace!
Shall fall on the raging nations,
Shall bid all their warfare cease;
Ere ever the lamb in slumber
Lies safe 'neath the lion's paw,
We will cry to the East: Hosannah!
We will call to the West: Huzzah!

A hymn to the God of Battles,
Who giveth the conq'ring sword,
Who harks to the cry for justice,
Who bends for the weak one's word;
A hymn for the grandest triumph,
E'er given the world to cheer,
We will lift that the East may hearken,
We will sing that the West may hear.

Far over the waving banners
The foundry's flame-plumes swirl;
And over the stoker blazons
The flag which we helped unfurl,
But if o'er our hearth stone hovers
The glory of sacrifice—
We will make to the East no moanings,
We will make to the West no cries.

The fires of conquest kindle;
The clang of our sword sounds far;
The lion purrs as he watches
His whelp at the game of war.
But ere we forget in our triumph,
And lest we grow faint in our cause,
We will cry to the East Hosannahs,
We will shout to the West Huzzahs.

—Grace Duffie Boylan.

THE MARINES AT CAIMANERA.

YOURS to brunt the ambush'd foeman; yours the vanguard, as of yore;
Yours to hoist and hold the standard 'mid the death hail on the shore;
Yours to scent the flume of venom borne upon the breath of hate,
While the spectred bush re-echoed, as the bullets sought their fate:
"Well done, marines! well done!"

Well done, marines!
With Manila's hardy fighters—serried monsters' mighty play—
With the gory girdled heroes blocking Santiago Bay—
Place the gallant soldier-sailors, first the bayonets to breast;
Blaze the chaparral forever over Caimanera's crest:
"Well done, marines! well done!"

Well done, marines!
Blazon this upon the 'scutcheon of the soldiers of the sea;
On the scroll of fame inscribe it; write it bold in history.

When the coming generations read
the story of to-day
Let the burning words impel them, in
their gratitude, to say:
"Well done, marines! well done!"

Well done, marines!
When the pearls of Carib's waters
freedom's diadem adorn;
When the eagle drives the vulture
forth to face his fated scorn;
When the flag of "Cuba Libre" greets
its natal dawning sky,
Loud above the acclaims ringing shall
the chorus'd Nation cry:
"Well done, marines! well done!"
—James Pym.

JIM.

I HEAR the drum roll, rub-a-dub,
dub,
And the piccolo's shrill refrain;
The boys in blue with hearts so true
Are marching home again.
I hear the drum, but it beats for me
Despair and grief's tattoo;
I'd be so glad if our only lad—
Our Jim—poor Jim—marched, too!

I hear the tramp, the tramp, tramp,
tramp,
Of the army marching by;
Brave soldiers all, at their country's
call,
They went to fight and die.
Their task is done; with heads erect
They pass there in review;
Instead of tears I'd give them cheers
If Jim—poor Jim—marched, too!

I hear the clank, the clank, clank,
clank,
Of the swords of captains gay;
But my worn eyes rest on the blood-
stained crest
Of a hill, far, far away.
They left him there where the weep-
ing winds
Sing dirges faint and few—
They're home—God's light! How
grand the sight
If Jim—poor Jim—marched, too!
—George Hobart.

ROUGH RIDERS' ROUNDELAY.

Following is, in part, the favorite marching song of Roosevelt's rough riders. It is sung to the tune of the "Irish Fusileers," a well-known British army song. These words were written by Private Edwin Emerson, Jr., Troop K, rough riders:

ROUGH riders were we from the
west,
Gallant gentlemen the rest,
Of volunteers the best;
Rallied to the flag at Roosevelt's be-
hest
To carve our way to glory.

When the Spanish shells and shrapnel
burst,
Our losses were the worst—
The chaplain even cursed.
"Charge!" cried Colonel Roosevelt,
and charged the first
To carve our way to glory.

Our rapid fire tore the Spanish line
to bits,
And scared them into fits;
Their leaders lost their wits;
Up the hill we went and stormed their
rifle pits
To carve our way to glory.

Intrenched within the pits long we lay,
By night as well as day,
Sore at the delay;

In our rear the yellow fever raged at
Siboney
To cheat us out of glory.

When no bloody Spaniards are left to
run,
Cuba will be won,
Our duty will be done;
Dead and living every single one
Has carved his way to glory.

HELEN GOULD.

NOBLE is the work you're doing,
Helen Gould,
Mercy's methods e'er pursuing, Helen
Gould—
Plucking from the fairest bower
Many a beauteous full-blown
flower,
And, where bleeding feet press, strew-
ing, Helen Gould.

Gold with you is more than booty,
Helen Gould,
Blessed power and grateful duty, Hel-
en Gould;
And, with gentleness and grace
You have toiled, until your face
Glows with rich angelic beauty, Helen
Gould.

Ah, the soldier boys, returning, Helen
Gould,
Of your goodness fast are learning,
Helen Gould,
And the deeds of your fair hand
Have the praise throughout the
land,
And a fame unique are earning, Helen
Gould.

There are cheers for you and praying,
Helen Gould;
For the friends of your arraying,
Helen Gould,
Reach from ocean unto ocean
And in praises or devotion,
Blessings on your head are laying,
Helen Gould.

"Angel of the camp" they name you,
Helen Gould,
As in kindly thoughts they frame you,
Helen Gould;
And, in camp or social whirl,
As a patriotic girl
All America will claim you, Helen
Gould.

MIGHTY FINE.

JEFF lived jes' off the ol' plank
road,
On a farm that wus two b' four,
He didn't hev much t' say t' folks
Becuz he wus humble an' pore;
But whenever anythin' pleased his eye
His withered ol' face 'd shine.
An' we'd hear him say in his quiet
way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

Once a Senator came t' the County
Fair,
An' he talked t' th' G. A. R.,
How they fought in th' war o' Sixty-
one.
Th' Army man an' the tar;
An' when he'd cracked up Lincoln
some
Es a man almos' divine,
We heard Jeff say in his quiet way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

An' when las' spring th' President said
He'd do up ol' haughty Spain
Fer doin' a villainous, treacherous
deed
Like th' blowin' up o' th' Maine,
Ol' Jeff he threw his paper aside,
In a pleased way, I opine,
An' we heard him say in his quiet way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

An' when th' President called fer men
An' a million answered th' call,
An' th' warn't 'nough guns t' go eround,
Ol' Jeff growd suddenly tall,
"I'm proud o' my country, boys," said he,
Es he chawed at th' end of a twine;
An' we heard him add in accents glad:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

Ol' Jeff hed a boy o' twenty-three,
An' a strappin' good feller, too,
An' when he heard th' wus goin' t' be war
He put on a suit o' blue;
An' when he started off t' th' train
Ol' Jeff never made a sign,
But he turned t' th' crowd an' said aloud:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

An' when he read o' th' Manila fight,
How Dewey had smashed a fleet,
An' all the village went rippin' mad
An' hollerin' in th' street,
Ol' Jeff came down through his garden plot
An' he leant on th' harbor vine,
An' we heard him say in his quiet way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

He never hollered ner shouted eround,
That sort, y' see, wa'nt ol' Jeff's way,
But he felt, you bet, in his good ol' heart,
Thet th' navy was come t' stay!
Thar wus po'try, too, in them gentle words,
A po'try we couldn't define,
When he'd turn an' say, in his quiet way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

He'd borrer th' papers o' neighbors near
An' he'd read 'em all through at night,
An' then drop in at th' grocery store
An' tell what he thought o' th' fight.
When Hobson went int' th' mouth o' hell
An' laughed at th' Spanish mine,
We heard Jeff say in his quiet way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

An' when th' report came over th' wire
How they'd stormed San Joo'n hill,
An' many a man wus dead an' gone
An' many a heart wus still,
Ol' Jeff, though he knowd thet his boy
Wus one thet made th' incline,
He wus heard t' say in his quiet way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

An' when they brought th' pore lad back
In a narrer box o' pine,
An' th' village band played th' grim dead march,
An' th' hull town got in line,
An' th' minister said how brave he wus,
An' every eye filled with brine,
We heard Jeff say in a chokin' way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

—Harold MacGrath.

HIS BLOOD.

Colonel Roosevelt is by descent French, Scotch, Dutch and Irish.—Current Newspaper Information.

ZEES TAYODORE, ze "Ridaire Rude,"
Who led ze charge at Caney,
Possess a coorazh verra good,
Mon Dieu! He's von of many!
Ze papaires talk ze man upon
And praise hees hero-eesm;
Zey like zees new Napoleon,
Nor ees eet strange he please zem,
Pourquoi? He ees a Frenchman!

I ken nae mon sae fu' o' fire
An' weel renoon deservin'
As he that fought mid reek an' mire,
Wi' nae retreat, nae swervin,'
When Spanish shell an' Spanish gun
Besmeared the groun' sae redlie;
But his was nae the race to shun
Tho' sword an' shot be deadlie,
For, trulie, he's ae Scotchman!

It vas not gueer dis Roosevelt
Vas sooch a prave gommander;
I dells you I mineself haf felt
As pold as Alexander;
It vas der ploot, mine friends, der ploot,
Dot mages der vearless soldtier;
An' dere vas none von ha'f so goot—
Remember vot I toldt you—
As his, vor he's von Dutchman!

Av course our Teddy's bould and brave,
How ilse could he be other?
No foiner lad, Oi well belave,
E'er woman had for mother.
Av coorse he drubbed thim Spanyards haard
Down there at Santiago;
He's not the spalpeen to be scared
At any div'lish Dago,
Because, begob, he's Oirish!

Vraiment! Zees Tayodore ees grand!
Parcèque he ees a Frenchman;
But dinna reck ae Scot is bond
To serve as any's henchman;
Dere vas no nation on der earth
So bold as vas der Deutscher;
An' ivery mon av anny worth
Is Oirish in the future,
As Teddy is this prisent!

—W. D. Fox.

GUAM.

AN AGE of wonders dawned on Guam,
Beneath the touch of Uncle Sam!
A time of restlessness and light
To take the place of peace and night!
Ah, Guam, asleep upon the ocean's breast,
Lulled by the soft Pacific into rest,
Unending as the sea is, and as still,
Why need you wake to wonders and to ill?

You are so very little, Guam, that you
Are but a misty speck upon the blue
Infinity of earth, and Guam,
Although 'tis well to be of Uncle Sam,

That is not all of peacefulness nor rest,
As you have known them on the gentle breast
Of your Pacific, where through all the years
You never knew our world of hopes and fears.

Ah, dear, delicious, distant, doleless isle,
Asleep for ages where those soft skies smile,
How rude would your awakening be
Roused by a new world's energy!

Ah, gentle Guam, keep shut those eyes of yours,
Care not for what is not upon your shores;
You are so little, Guam, away so far,
The busy world might leave you as you are.

An age of wonders, sorrows, cares,
In which each state and nation shares!
They call it dawn. Guam, is such light
A greater blessing than your night?

It may be, Guam; or if it be or not,
What harm can be, if only one small spot
On all the earth is left still unoppressed,
Where man may stop and breathe and rest?

—W. J. Lampton.

A SONG OF THE FIGHT.

O THE glory and the story of the fight,
The dashing of the war-steeds in the strife—
The charge, and the retreat,
And the flag the winding-sheet
Of faces staring starward from the strife,
Lost to life—
And the wailing of the mother and the wife!

O the glory and the story of the fight!
The leaving for the battleground of Fate,
With glory for the goal,
Where the cannon-thunders roll,
And kisses for the woman at the gate
Who shall wait
For the unreturning footsteps, long and late!

O the glory and the story of the fight!
Blow, bugles, o'er the flowering meadows—blow!
But when the fight is done—
Wake ye each trampled one
That sought to see the sun of glory glow!
Bugles blow!
But the dead beneath the drooped flags shall not know!

ARMY DIET.

MY father says 'at sojers is
The braves' mens 'at ever was;
'At when they hears the shots go "Whiz!"
They don't mind it a bit, bekuz
The whiz means 'at you ain't got hit,
An' so they ist don't keer a bit.

Pa says 'at sojers knows a lot,
An' they can walk "ist like one man,"
An' aim so well 'at every shot
Will hit a sneakin' Spaniard, an'
He says they have to eat "hard tacks"
An' carry "raccoons" on their backs.

But when I ast him why they do
He ist busts out a-laughin,' nen
He says, "You know a thing or two,
My son!" an' laughs an' laughs again,
An' says, "'At's ist the very thing—
The sojers eats the tax, 'i jing!"

THE YOUNGEST BOY IN BLUE.

When the Second Naval Battalion of Brooklyn occupied the old Thirteenth regiment armory, the boys vied with each other in contributing books, pictures, flags, etc., to help brighten the old company rooms.

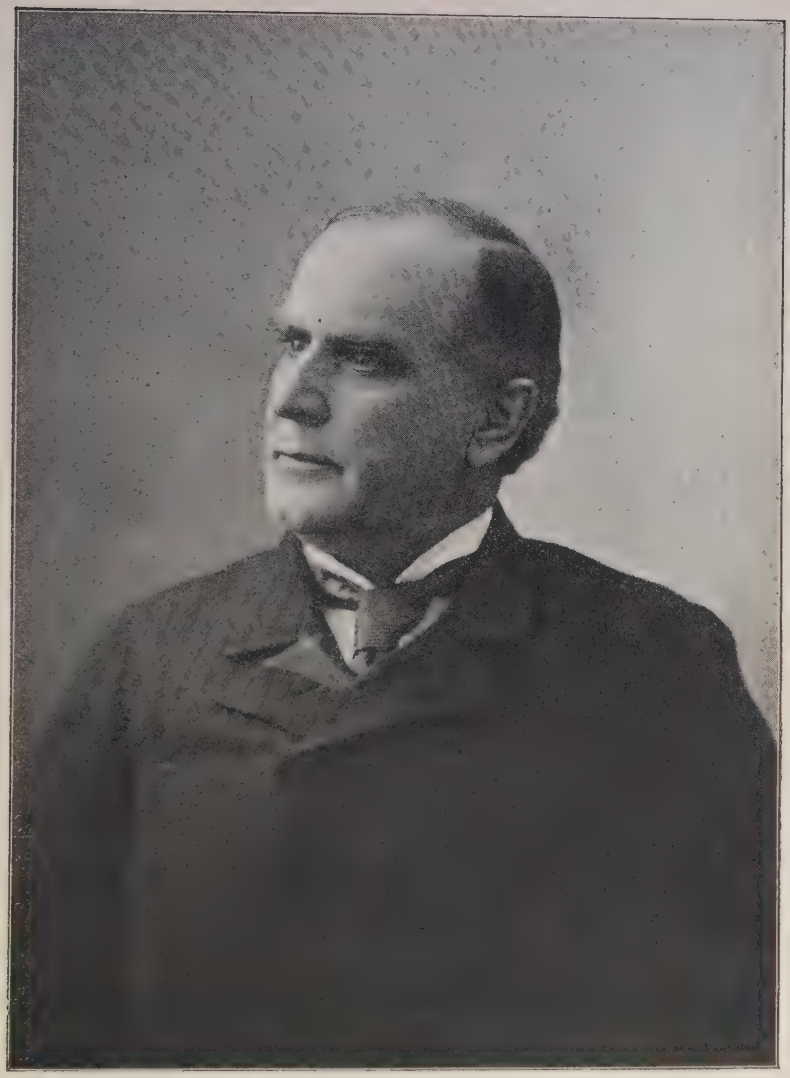
Pinned on the bulletin board one night, among a lot of warlike orders, were found these unsigned verses:

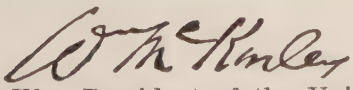
OLD Uncle Sam has a fine, new boy,
The youngest of all in blue;
He's the Naval Reserve, with lots of nerve,
And plenty of courage, too.
So give him a place in the family, lads,
We've plenty for him to do.

At sea he chaffs the sailor men,
And joins in their daily work
With all his might (though he'd rather fight),
For he never was built for a shirk.
So sling his hammock up for'ard, lads,
And teach him to use the dirk.

On land he elbows and jostles about,
Or marches all day in the sun,
With a cheery smile for every mile,
And a frolic when day is done;
But when you get in a skirmish, men,
He doesn't know how to run.

Then fill your mugs to the young'un, lads,
Who mixes with every crew;
On land or sea, wherever he be,
We'll always find him true,
And we'll give him a place in the family, lads,
For there's plenty for him to do.





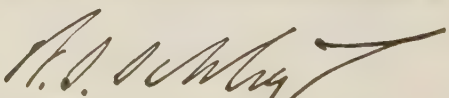
William McKinley, War President of the United States, was born in Niles, Ohio, January 29, 1843. He enlisted as a private in the Civil War and was mustered out as a Brevet Major. His entrance into national politics was in 1876, when he was first elected to Congress. As Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee he later shaped the tariff legislation of his party. In 1891 he was elected Governor of Ohio and in 1896 was elected to the Presidency. He employed every means consistent with the honor and dignity of the Nation to avert the war with Spain, but when war became inevitable he prosecuted it vigorously. Congress voted him $50,000,000 as a personal war fund.

George Dewey

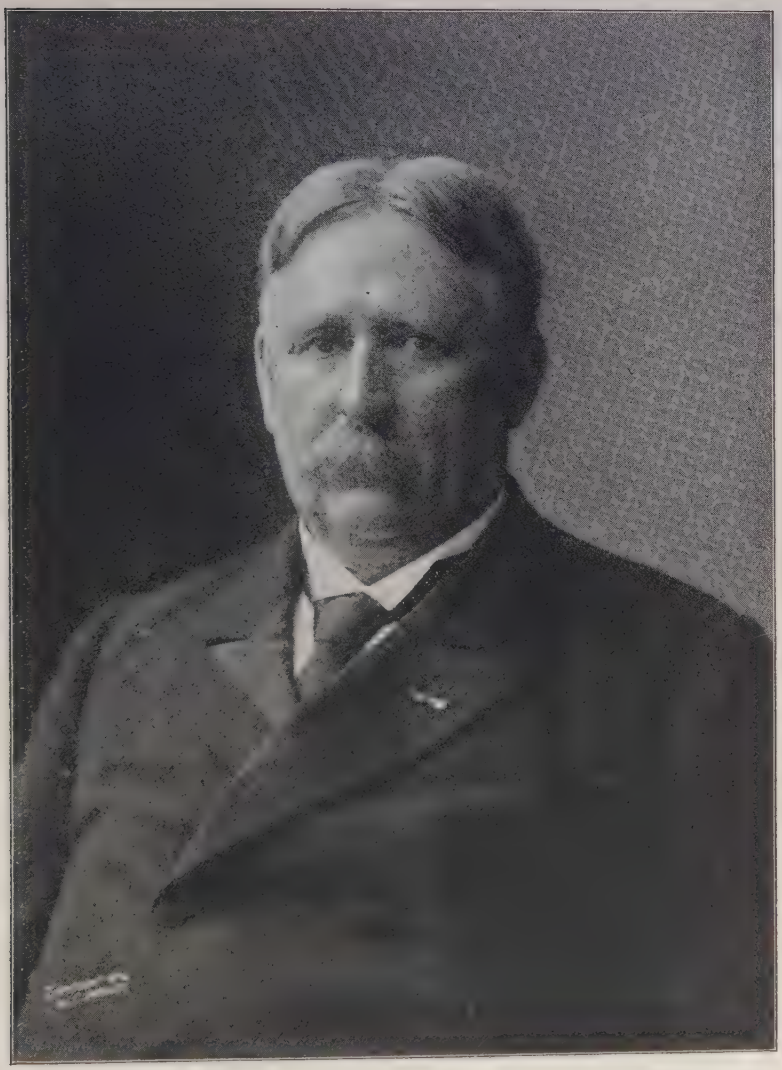
George Dewey, the third to hold the rank of Admiral in the United States Navy, is a Vermonter by birth and is in his sixty-first year. He graduated from Annapolis before the Civil war, served under Farragut and was specially commended for gallantry at the battle of Mobile Bay. At the beginning of the Spanish-American War he was a Commodore commanding the Asiatic squadron. His victory at the battle of Manila is unparalleled in naval history. Congress created the rank of full Admiral for him, to which he was at once appointed.

W. T. Sampson U.S.N.

Rear Admiral William T. Sampson, who commanded the blockading and North Atlantic squadrons, was born at Palmyra, N. Y., in 1840. He graduated at the Naval Academy in 1861. Sampson was executive officer and stood on the bridge of the Patapsco when she was blown up by a torpedo in Charleston harbor January 16, 1865. Since the formation of the new navy he has commanded the Iowa and San Francisco. On account of his knowledge of mines and torpedoes he was appointed President of the Maine Court of Inquiry. When Cervera's fleet attempted to escape from Santiago bay Admiral Sampson was absent on his flagship New York.

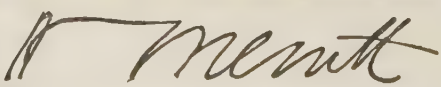


Rear Admiral Winfield Scott Schley, who was Commodore commanding the second division of Sampson's fleet during the war, was born in Frederick, Md., October 9, 1839. After the Civil War he distinguished himself as the leader of the Greely relief expedition, which found and rescued the daring Arctic explorer. At the beginning of the war with Spain Admiral Schley was placed in command of the flying squadron, later attached to Sampson's fleet. At the battle off Santiago, in which Cervera's fleet was destroyed, he was in command during the absence of Admiral Sampson. His flagship, the Brooklyn, led the chase after the Cristobal Colon and was hit oftener than any American ship in the great battle.



Wm R Shafter

Major-General William Rufus Shafter, who commanded the American forces in Cuba, is not a West Pointer, but served in the Civil War, winning the rank of Brevet Brigadier-General. He then entered the regular army and later saw much service on the frontier. For eighteen years he was Colonel of the First Infantry. He is a severe disciplinarian and believes in militarism. His command in Cuba consisted of the Fifth Army Corps and participated in all the battles of the Santiago campaign from La Guasimas until Toral's surrender. General Shafter was born in Michigan in 1835.



Major-General Wesley Merritt commanded the American military forces in the Philippines, and, in co-operation with Admiral Dewey's fleet, won the battle of Malate and captured the city of Manila. After the signing of the Peace Protocol he was ordered to Paris to give information and advice to the American Peace Commissioners. General Merritt was born in New York in 1836 and graduated from West Point in 1860. In the Civil War he rose to the brevet rank of Major-General, having been successively promoted for gallantry. While in the Philippines he was virtually the military governor of the territory held by the American forces. He was succeeded by Major-General Elwell S. Otis previous to the Filipino outbreak.

Nelson A. Miles

Nelson A. Miles, the ranking Major-General of the United States Army, in the early stages of the Spanish war acted as an adviser to President McKinley and later led the expedition to Porto Rico and conducted the campaign in that island in person. He has a splendid record in the Civil War, as well as the late one, and is noted for his successful campaigns against the Indians. General Miles was born in Massachusetts, August 8, 1839.

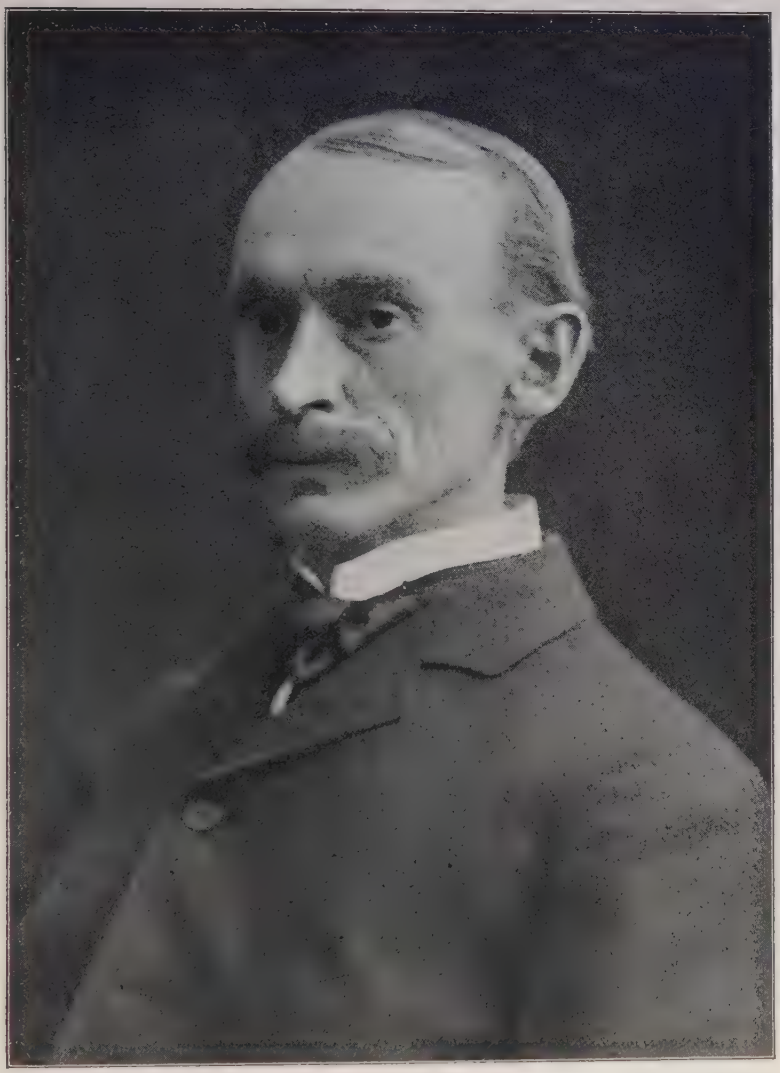
Major-General Joseph Wheeler, who won the title of "Fighting Joe" in the Civil War, left his seat in Congress to go with the Fifth Army Corps in the Santiago campaign, receiving his commission at the same time as Fitzhugh Lee. The gallant ex-Confederate cavalry leader was given command of the cavalry division and distinguished himself at San Juan Hill by going to the front, during an illness, in an ambulance. General Wheeler was born in Augusta, Ga., September 10, 1836. He was a member of the Forty-seventh, Forty-ninth, Fiftieth, Fifty-first, Fifty-second, Fifty-third and Fifty-fourth Congresses and was re-elected in November 1898, to the Fifty-fifth Congress.

Theodore Roosevelt

Colonel Theodore Roosevelt, who with Colonel Leonard Wood organized and commanded the First United States Volunteer Cavalry, known as the "Rough Riders," was born in New York, October 29, 1858. His line goes back to mediæval times in Dutch history. He has served as Assemblyman from New York, National Civil Service Commissioner, Police Commissioner for New York City, and at the breaking out of the war was Assistant Secretary of the Navy. In the latter office he won high praise for vigorous administration and his insistence upon target practice. Colonel Roosevelt is the author of several historical works and is celebrated as a sportsman and ranchman. In November, 1898, he was elected Governor of New York.

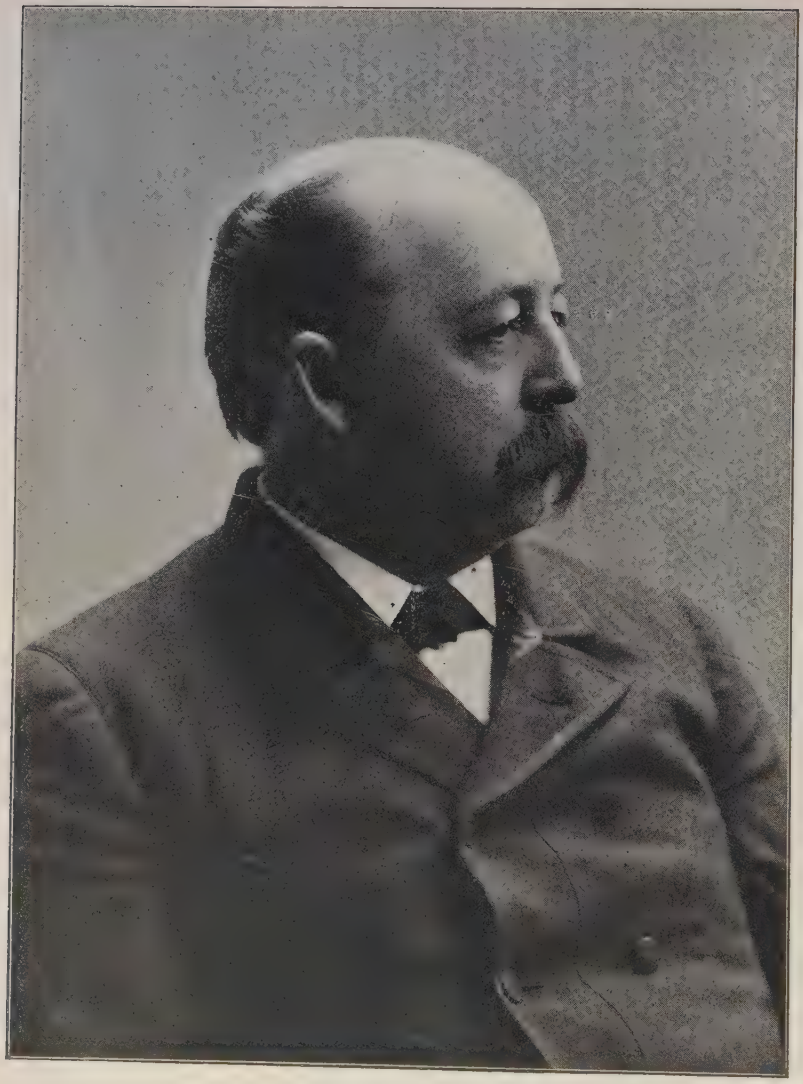
R. P. Hobson

Lieutenant Richmond Pearson Hobson, who sunk the collier Merrimac in the channel to Santiago harbor, was born in Greensboro, Ala., August 17, 1870. At the Naval Academy he stood at the head of his class and was graduated in 1889. He studied in the shipyards of England and France for several years and was then attached to the Bureau of Construction in the Navy Department. After the battle of Santiago he succeeded in raising the sunken Spanish cruiser Maria Teresa, which was afterwards lost in a storm. For his heroic feat with the Merrimac he was promoted to full rank in the construction department and was afterwards sent to Manila to raise the Spanish vessels sunk by Admiral Dewey.



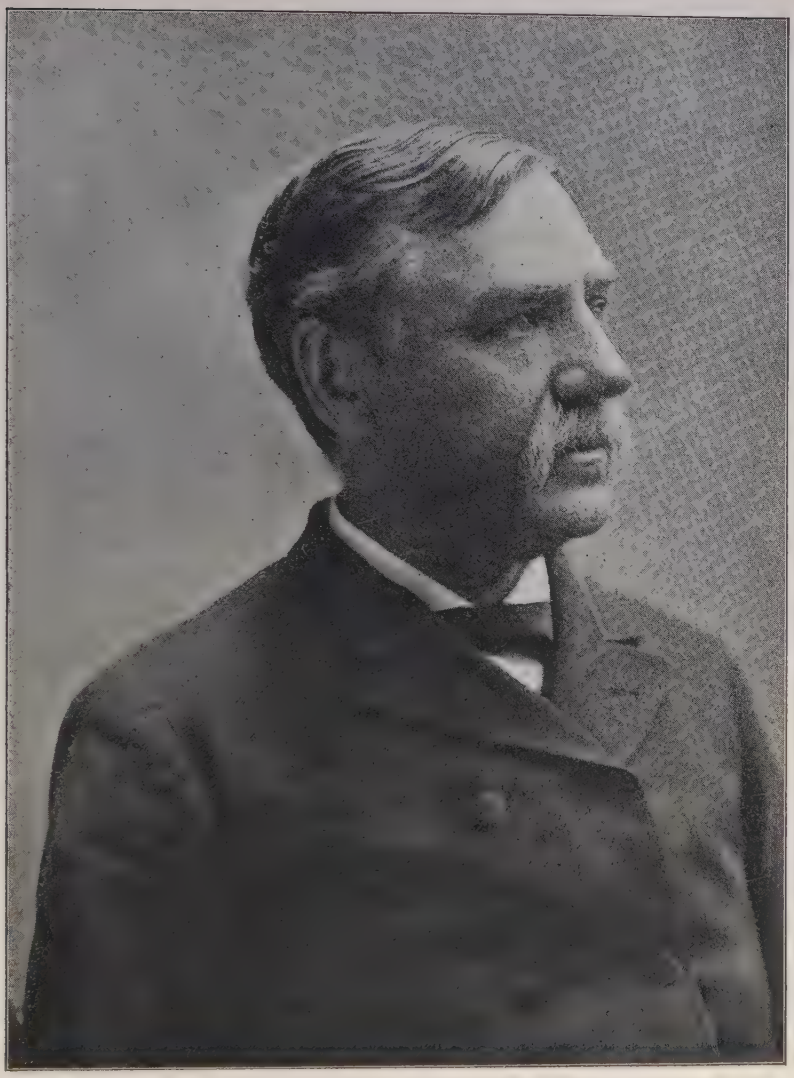
William R. Day

William R. Day resigned the office of Secretary of State to become President of the American Peace Commission, in which capacity he was the personal representative of President McKinley. He drew and signed the peace protocol jointly with M. Cambon, who represented Spain. Before the war Judge Day was scarcely known outside of Ohio. His father was a Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of that State and both father and son took high rank for legal and judicial ability. Next to the President, Judge Day carried all the burden of the affair with Spain from the beginning, first as assistant to Secretary of State John Sherman, then as Secretary and lastly as President of the American Peace Commission.



C K Davis

United States Senator Cushman K. Davis, next to ex-Secretary Day, was the most conspicuous member of the American Peace Commission. He is aggressive but conservative and was a strong advocate of national expansion. Senator Davis was born in Henderson, New York, June 16, 1838, and is a lawyer by profession. He served as a First Lieutenant in the Civil War. He has been Attorney-General and Governor of Minnesota, and was elected to the Senate in 1886 and at the time of his appointment as Peace Commissioner was Chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. He is an eloquent orator and in personal appearance bears a strong resemblance to the late Benjamin F. Butler.



Wm P Frye

United States Senator William P. Frye, of Maine, member of the American Peace Commission, has been in public life continuously since 1861. He served three terms in the Maine Legislature, three terms as Attorney-General of the State and eighteen years in the lower house of Congress. In 1889 he was elected Senator to succeed James G. Blaine and has been re-elected since without opposition. Senator Frye comes of Revolutionary stock, being a grandson of General Joseph Frye, and is intensely American. He is an orator, and was an eloquent advocate of the war with Spain, being in thorough sympathy with the administration from the time war was declared.

Geo. Gray

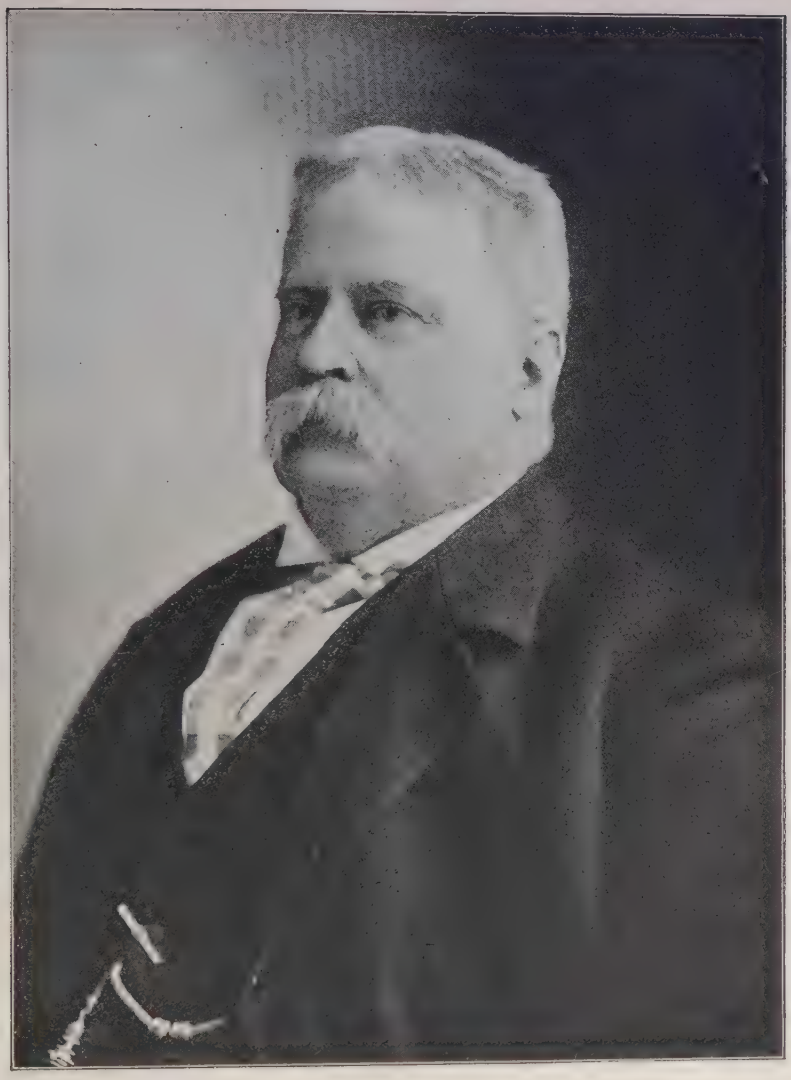
United States Senator George Gray, of Delaware, was the only Democratic member of the American Peace Commission, and while he was personally opposed to the acquisition of the Philippines, he yielded to the wishes of his government. Senator Gray succeeded the late Thomas F. Bayard in the Senate when Mr. Bayard was made Secretary of State, and was re-elected in 1887 and 1893. He is a graduate of Princeton, served two terms as Attorney-General of Delaware and has been prominent in national Democratic politics. Senator Gray is in his fifty-ninth year. His term as United States Senator expired March 5, 1899.

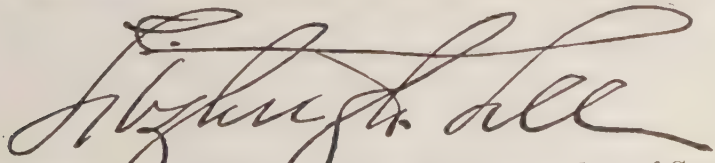
Whitelaw Reid

Whitelaw Reid, one of the Commissioners who negotiated the Treaty of Peace with Spain, has been editor and chief owner of the New York Tribune for a number of years, succeeding Horace Greeley. He was born near Xenia, Ohio, October 27, 1837, and began a public career by making speeches for John C. Fremont. In the Civil War he was aid-de-camp to General Rosecrans and was present at the battles of Shiloh and Gettysburg. He declined the post of Minister to Germany from both Presidents Hayes and Garfield, but accepted appointment as Ambassador to France under President Harrison. He is the author of a number of books, notably "The Scholar in Politics."

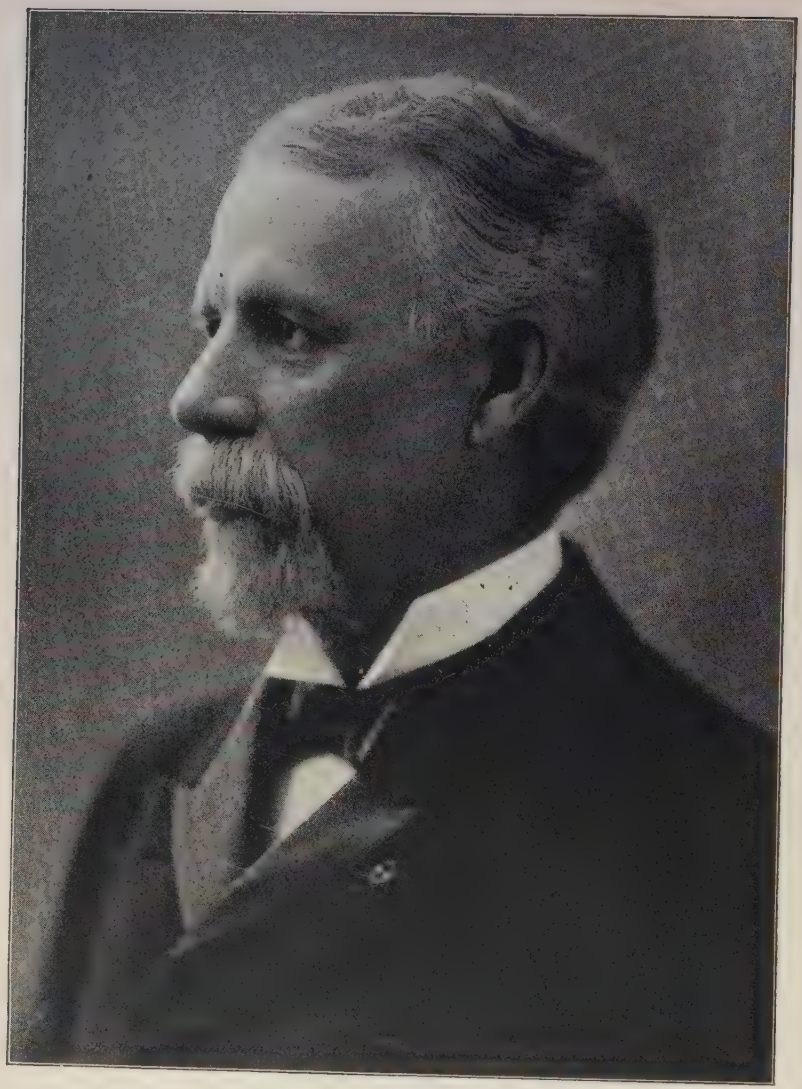
Henry C Corbin

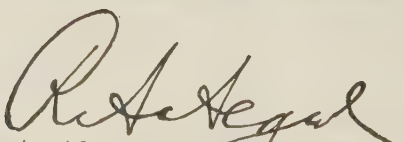
Adjustant-General Henry C. Corbin, who administered the affairs of the Adjutant-General's office, entered the service as an Ohio volunteer when but 18 years of age. He has served on the staffs of Generals Hunt, Schofield, Terry, Cook and Miles and has been through two Indian campaigns. His office is the repository for the records of the War Department which relate to the personnel of the regular army and the militia and to the military history of every commissioned officer and soldier. It also has charge of the recruiting service. General Corbin was with President Garfield when the latter was assassinated and has led every inaugural parade beginning with President Garfield's.



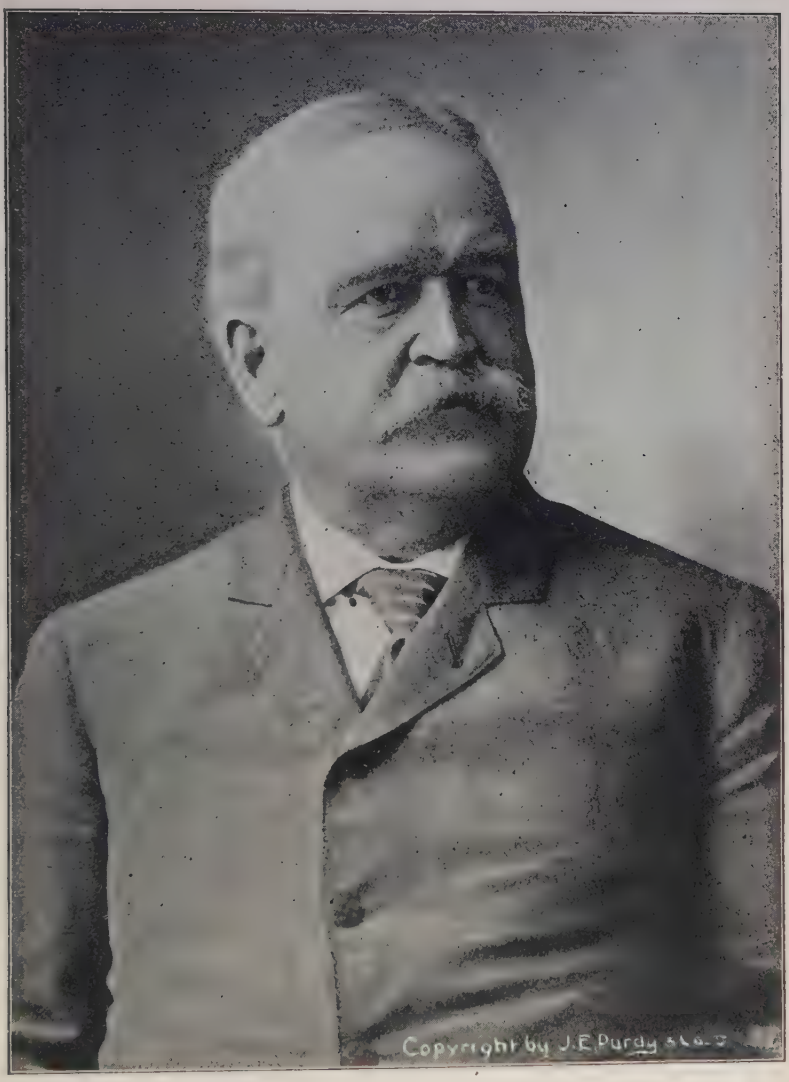


Major-General Fitzhugh Lee is a nephew of General Robert E. Lee and a grandson of Colonel Henry Lee ("Light Horse Harry") of Revolutionary fame. He was born at Clermont, Fairfax County, Va., on November 19, 1835, and was graduated at West Point in 1856. He was one of the most noted Confederate cavalry commanders in the Civil War. In 1885 he was elected Governor of Virginia. President Cleveland appointed him Consul-General at Havana in 1896. It was to support him that the Maine was sent to Havana.





General Russell A. Alger, Secretary of War in President McKinley's cabinet, was born in Lafayette township, Ohio, February 27, 1836. His grandfather served in the Revolutionary War. In early manhood he was a lawyer, but soon abandoned it for the lumber business, locating in Michigan. He served as a cavalry commander during the war, part of the time as a member of the famous Custer Brigade. General Alger was elected Governor of Michigan in 1884, and in 1888 was a prominent candidate for the Presidential nomination. He served one term as Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Army.

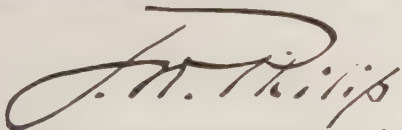


John D. Long

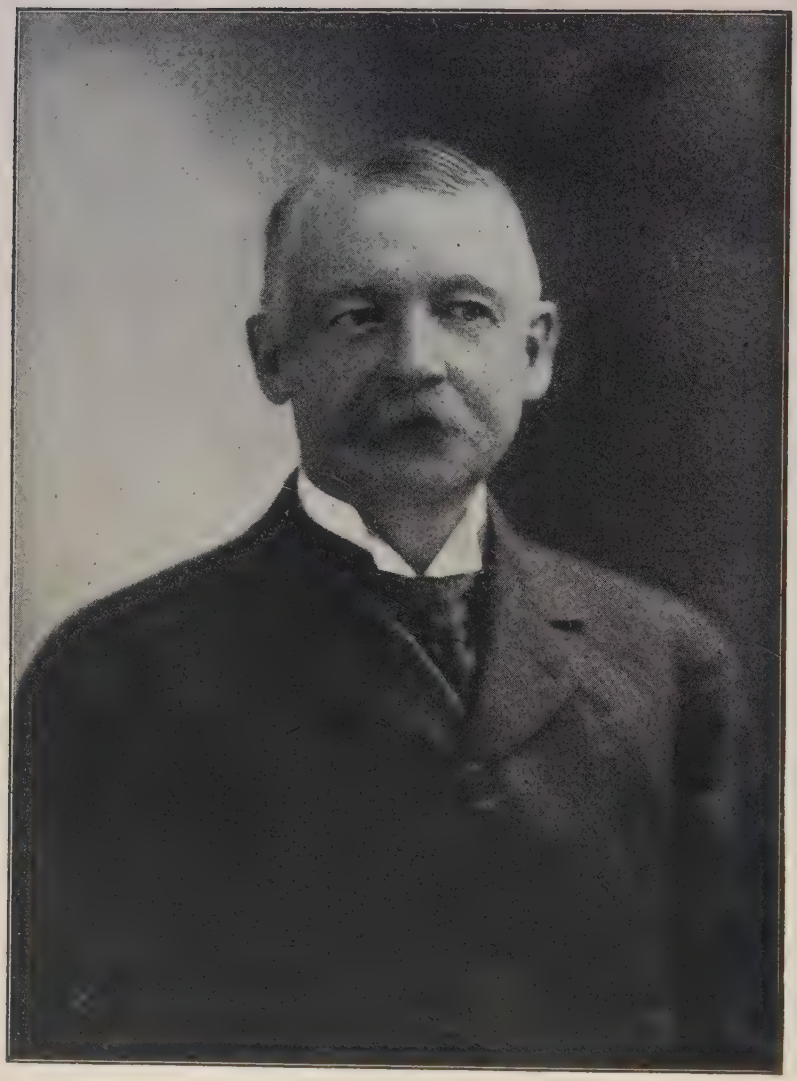
John D. Long, whose administration of the Navy Department during the Spanish war has been wholly free from criticism, has been a country school-teacher, a poet, translator, village lawyer, singer in a church choir, member of the Legislature, Congressman, and has also been Lieutenant-Governor and Governor of Massachusetts. He was born in Buckfield, Me., October 27, 1838, and graduated from Harvard in 1857. Although a member in good standing of the Massachusetts Peace Society, he favored a vigorous prosecution of the war as soon as hostilities were declared, and relying upon the skill of the naval commanders, he gave them wide discretionary powers.

C. E. Clark.

Captain Charles E. Clark, who commanded "the bulldog of the American Navy"—the battleship Oregon—is a native of Admiral Dewey's State—Vermont. He is 50 years old. The marvelous voyage of the Oregon around the Horn and the splendid seamanship of Captain Clark won the admiration of the world, which was only increased by the splendid work of ship and commander in the destruction of Cervera's fleet off Santiago and the thrilling chase of the big battleship after the Spanish cruiser Cristobal Colon. Captain Clark also has the honor of having first landed United States forces on Cuban soil—on the shore of Guantanamo Bay.

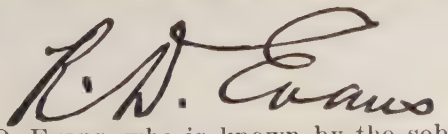


Captain John W. Philip, who commanded the battleship Texas—sister ship to the Maine—was born in New York in 1840 and entered the Naval Academy at the age of sixteen. He served with the Gulf and South Atlantic squadrons in the Civil War. He has commanded the Tuscarora, the Atlanta and was the first Captain of the New York. Under Captain Philip the Texas played a brilliant part in the blockading squadron and in the destruction of Cervera's fleet. Captain Philip's character is illustrated by an order to his men in the moment of victory: "Don't cheer, boys, the poor devils are drowning."

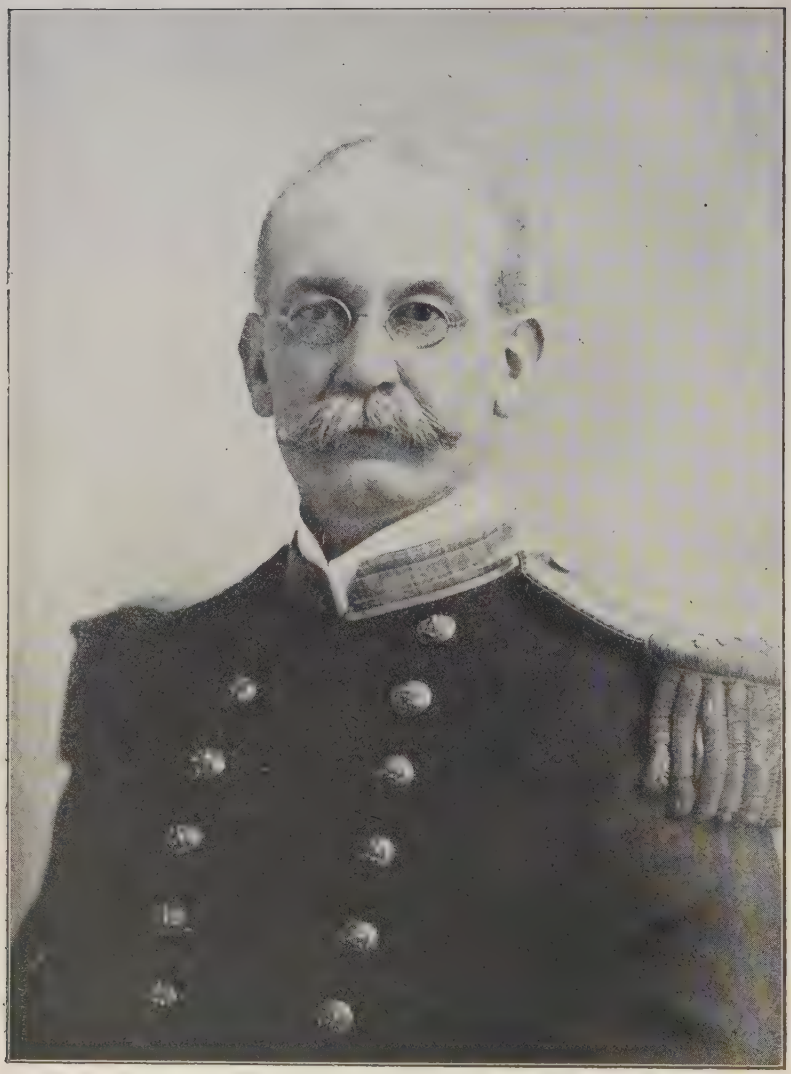


Francis John Higginson

Captain Francis John Higginson, by a singular coincidence, is a native of the State for which the ship he commanded during the war was named. He graduated from Annapolis in 1861, just in time to go into the civil war. He fought in the bombardments of Forts Jackson and St. Philip, of the Chalmette batteries, in the capture of the Judith and the taking of New Orleans. In the Spanish war he and the Massachusetts were with the North Atlantic blockading squadron and later led the naval expedition to Porto Rico. In his report on the Porto Rican campaign, General Miles acknowledges the able assistance rendered by Captain Higginson.

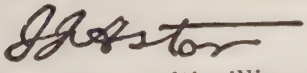


Captain Robley D. Evans, who is known by the sobriquet of "Fighting Bob," commanded the big battleship Iowa during the late war and distinguished himself in the battle of Santiago. He won his title of Fighting Bob at Valparaiso, Chile, at a time when relations between that country and the United States were strained. His ship, the Yorktown, had been used as a point of attack by Chilean torpedo-boats in practice. Captain Evans cleared for action and demanded of the Chilean authorities that the harbor be cleared of torpedo-boats, which was done. He was born in Virginia and graduated from the Naval Academy in 1863. He was wounded three times in the Civil War.



C. D. Sigsbee

Captain Charles D. Sigsbee, who commanded the battleship Maine at the time of her destruction in Havana harbor, was appointed to the Naval Academy from New York, his native State, and graduated in 1863, in time to participate in the battle of Mobile bay and the attack on Fort Fisher. He has served at the Naval Academy, on the flagships Severn and Worcester, at the North Atlantic Station, in the hydrographic office, the coast survey, on the Dale and the old Kearsarge. His coolness and self-command when the Maine was blown up were highly commended. After the loss of the Maine he commanded the scout ship St. Paul until the end of the war.



Colonel John Jacob Astor, the multi-millionaire descendant of the first John Jacob Astor who helped to make Western American history, displayed his patriotism both in unique and conventional ways—conventional in accepting a commission as Inspector-General, and unique in presenting the Government with a $100,000 mountain battery, which did splendid service in the Philippines. Colonel Astor was born July 13, 1864, at Ferncliff-on-the-Hudson. He graduated from Harvard in 1888. He wrote a book entitled "A Journey Through Other Worlds." His military experience had been gained as an aide on Governor Morton's staff. His wealth is estimated at $80,000,000, but he was one of the first to assist the Government with his means and services.

LIEUTENANT ANDREW S. ROWAN.

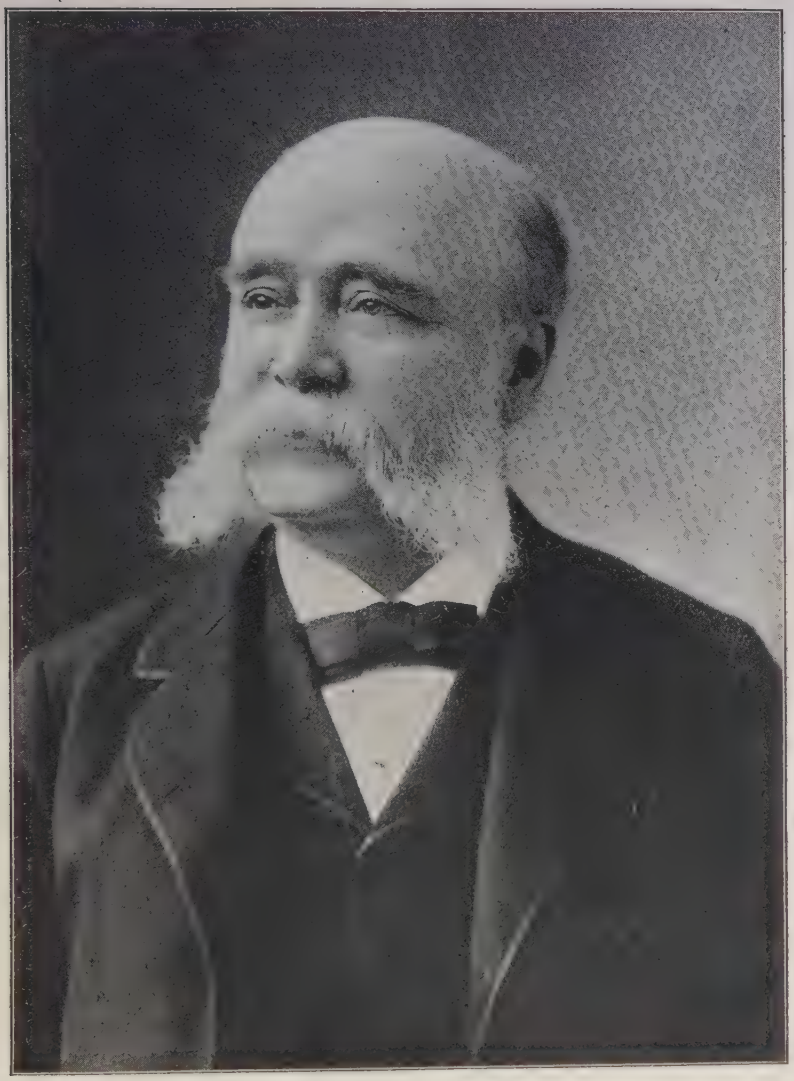
Lieutenant Andrew S. Rowan, of the Nineteenth Infantry, distinguished himself as a secret agent of the War Department in collecting information concerning Cuba and the insurgents. In various disguises he penetrated the island to the headquarters of General Garcia and delivered a message to the Cuban leader from General Miles. At the same time he collected much valuable information concerning the country and means of communication. He successfully dodged Spanish spies and pickets. In recognition of his services he was promoted to be Lieutenant-Colonel of the Sixth United States Volunteers. He is a native of Virginia, and graduated from West Point in 1881. He knows the Spanish language and the Spanish people.

Helen Miller Gould.

Helen Miller Gould, the eldest daughter of the late multi-millionaire, Jay Gould, was one of the conspicuous heroines of the war. Through her liberality the Women's War Relief Association secured funds to make itself effective. Besides heavy contributions to the National Relief fund and many private donations, Miss Gould gave the government a check for $100,000 to be expended in luxuries and delicacies for sick soldiers. In addition to these benefactions she gave her personal services by frequent visits to men in the hospitals, and established several hospitals of her own. Miss Gould is about thirty years of age, and while not radiantly beautiful, is a wholesome looking woman. She has dark hair and eyes and a petite figure.

Clara Barton

Clara Barton, whose work among the reconcentrados of Cuba prior to and during the war, and whose labors with the Red Cross Society have made her famous the world over, was born in Oxford, Mass., in 1830. When the Civil War broke out she went to the front of her volition and nursed the wounded soldiers, and was later given an important position by President Lincoln. In the Franco-Prussian war she assisted the Grand Duchess of Baden in the preparations of military hospitals and aided the Red Cross Society. When that society was organized in the United States she became its first President. She did more than any other to relieve suffering in Cuba, both among natives and Americans.



GENERAL STEWART L. WOODFORD.

General Stewart L. Woodford has been soldier, statesman and jurist. His ancestors served in the Revolution and he served with distinction in the Civil War, both in the field and as Military Governor of Charleston and Savannah. Later he held many political and several judicial offices. As Minister to Spain he made every possible effort to avert war. Before he could present the President's ultimatum he was notified by the Spanish Premier that diplomatic negotiations had been ended and was given his passports. He left Madrid the next day. General Woodford was born in New York City, September 3, 1835, was educated at Yale and was admitted to the bar in 1857. He was prominent in Lincoln's first campaign.

ADMIRAL CERVERA.

Admiral Pascual de Cervera y Torpete, Conde de Jeres, Marquis de Santa Ana, is the full name and title of the commander of the Spanish fleet destroyed off Santiago harbor. He was born in 1833. His father was a man of wealth, his mother being a daughter of Count Porpete y Velle, of the royal family of Spain. In his youth he was naval attache of the Spanish legation at Washington. He saw service in Cuba in the "Ten Years' War," and has held the naval portfolio in the Spanish cabinet. He was Adjutant to the Queen Regent for several years, and at the time his fleet was destroyed he was considered the foremost naval commander in his country.

RAMON BLANCO.

Captain-General Ramon Blanco y Arenas succeeded Valeriano Weyler as Governor-General of Cuba just previous to the beginning of the war. In 1894 he was made Governor-General of the Philippines and was raised to the rank of Marshal in 1895. His methods were not considered severe enough and he resigned. Later he became chief of the military household of the Queen Regent. He was not more successful in pacifying the Cuban insurgents than he had been in conciliating the Filipinos. While he was quick to sympathize with Captain Sigsbee over the destruction of the Maine, he was guilty of gross discourtesy to Consul-General Fitzhugh Lee when the latter took leave of the island upon severance of diplomatic relations.

REAR ADMIRAL MONTGOMERY SICARD.

Rear Admiral Montgomery Sicard was in command of the North Atlantic squadron at the time the Maine was sent to Havana. When the war began he was relieved of active command on account of age and served only in an advisory capacity, having been succeeded by Acting Rear Admiral William T. Sampson. He has been in the navy for forty-eight years and served with distinction under Farragut during the Civil War. He has been Chief of the Ordnance Bureau, President of the Steel Board, and in command of the navy yards at Boston and Brooklyn. When the monitor Miantonomah was the most formidable vessel in the American navy she was commanded by Rear Admiral (then Captain) Montgomery Sicard.

CHAPTER XXXI.

STORY OF THE OREGON.

RECORD-BREAKING TRIP OF THE PRIDE OF THE AMERICAN NAVY—HER PART IN THE BATTLE OF SANTIAGO AND HER LONG JOURNEY TO THE PHILIPPINES—THE LONGEST AND LONELIEST TRIP EVER MADE BY A MAN-OF-WAR.

RIDE of the Navy! Queen of the Navy! Bull-dog of the Navy! Terror of the Navy! These and similar are the endearing titles applied to the first-class battleship Oregon, whose achievements in the Spanish War have no parallel in the annals of any navy.

The record-breaking voyage of the magnificent fighting ship from San Francisco to Key West was watched by 70,000,000 people in this country and by many millions more abroad, with an interest more intense than ever before was felt in a war vessel. At its completion the watchers, with the exception of Spain and her sympathizers, experienced profound admiration, while the enemy was filled with consternation.

In 81 days the Oregon covered a distance of 14,511 knots or 16,764 miles.

The longest voyage ever made by a battleship is one of the records she made.

A continuous run without a single stop of 4,500 knots, the distance between San Francisco and Callao, is another, never equalled by any other battleship, the nearest approach being the run of a British flagship from England to China, a distance of 2,600 miles.

Covering a distance of 2,844 knots at an average speed of thirteen knots is still another new record.

A run of 155 knots in ten hours is another still hitherto unparalleled.

After the longest trip ever made by a battleship the Oregon's engines were in as perfect condition as when she left Puget Sound.

Following this marvelous achievement the Oregon established a record as a fighting ship in the battle off Santiago, which increased the universal pride felt for her by the American nation. Her guns shot true and did fearful execution, and her great speed made it possible for her to overhaul and sink the fastest cruiser of Cervera's fleet.

The wonderful performances of the unrivalled battleship did not end with the end of the Spanish war. The fame of the greatest ship in the American navy had reached the ears of the greatest of living American Admirals, George Dewey. Complications with the Filipinos had arisen and with the diplomatic foresight characteristic of Admiral Dewey he foresaw the possibility of serious complications with other nations. He cabled a request to the Secretary of War to send the Oregon to Manila. Such was the popularity of Admiral Dewey and so thoroughly did he possess the confidence of the administration that a request from him was equal to a command, and the wonderful battleship already on her way as far as Honolulu was hurried to the Philippines. How well she sustained her reputation is told in Admiral Dewey's cable of March 18, 1899, announcing her arrival at Manila:

Secretary of Navy: Oregon and Iris arrived this morning. The Oregon is fit for any duty. DEWEY.

All over this broad land there was a feeling of exultation, mingled with a sense of relief, that with the invincible Admiral and invincible ship American interests were safe in the Philippines.

The destruction of the Maine and the intense war feeling, both in the United States and Spain, made it desirable that the government should be prepared to defend the Atlantic seaboard with the strongest possible fleet in the event of hostilities, and accordingly the Oregon was ordered from the Pacific to the Atlantic coast.

STORY OF THE FIRST TRIP.

The Oregon left Bremerton, Puget Sound, where she had been in dry dock, on March 6th and arrived in San Francisco on March 9th. There she coaled, and left on the morning of March 19th for a run of 4,500 knots to Callao, reaching the latter point on April 4th.

From San Francisco to Callao the run was easy—seventy-five revo-

lutions of the propeller every minute, giving a speed of eleven knots an hour—in order to economize fuel, the run being about four knots to a ton of coal. At Callao more coal was in readiness to put aboard, and the work of storing it was rushed. The engineers and coal-passers worked thirty hours without rest, and April 7th the Oregon proceeded on her journey.

Before reaching Callao, at exactly noon on March 31st, the Oregon crossed the equator, being the first American battleship to have the distinction of crossing the line.

The event was attended by all the ceremonies prescribed by ancient custom. The evening before Father Neptune hailed the ship and announced his visit for the following day. The next day at high noon he came over the bow, followed by his retinue. Two hundred of the ship's company had never "crossed the line," and each landlubber was showered with a mixture of eggs, molasses, salt water, flour, and rope yarn, all except the officers, who bought Neptune off with plenty of refreshments for his retinue, and even these were made to shoot the chutes into a tank of salt water.

Each initiate was presented with a diploma bearing the seal of Neptune, of which the following is a copy:

U. S. S. OREGON.

To all whom these present shall come, greeting:

Know ye that ——— has this day been enrolled as a loyal subject of His Most Gracious Majesty, Neptunus Rex, monarch of all the seas, and in virtue thereof is entitled to all due respect from the common landlubbers of the earth. By royal command, therefore, it is decreed that all good sailormen, mermaids, sharks, whales, sea serpents and other faithful subjects of His Royal Nibs shall abstain from maltreating or slandering the holder of this certificate.

Done at our royal court, on the equator, this 31st day of March, 1898, according to earthly computation.

(Signed) BY THE KING.

DOWNALLDITTYBOXES, Secretary.

Leaving Callao April 7th, the Oregon, steaming with four boilers and natural draught, made twelve and a half to thirteen knots, with

heavy seas and strong currents against her, the revolutions being 90 to 100 to the minute. The Straits of Magellan, with their tortuous crooks and turns and hampering currents, and the wind blowing the worst gale any of the Oregon's officers ever experienced, were entered April 16th, and the two anchors were cast at the head of the straits. Captain Clark, in his report to Washington, said the sea and wind were the worst he ever experienced.

On the day following one of the memorable runs of the voyage was made, the destination being Punta Arenas, in the southernmost part of Chile. For ten hours the ship ran at a speed of fifteen and one-half knots natural draught. Punta Arenas was reached on the evening of April 17th, the distance of 155 miles having been covered in ten hours.

Passing through Magellan Straits, the men of the Oregon expressed the first warlike fears of the voyage. Although not then informed that war had been declared, the officers had their suspicions, and were led to believe that a Spanish torpedo-boat destroyer was lying in wait to make an attack. A sharp lookout was kept as the Oregon rushed through the sea at almost railroad speed.

The current was now with her, and at some times she covered twenty knots, aided by the current. All the light guns were kept loaded, and the men were constantly at them on the lookout for the sly craft. But not a sign of the Spaniard was seen.

That night at Punta Arenas the Oregon was joined by the gunboat Marietta, and there was a great feeling of relief to find that she, too, had escaped a surreptitious attack from the Spanish destroyer.

On the morning of April 20th she was ready to leave Punta Arenas, but waited until early next morning for the Marietta.

On the morning of April 30th, in order to put into the Harbor of Rio de Janeiro before nightfall, the Oregon left the Marietta and made a forced run, again breaking her record. The weather was scorching hot. The sun beat down with terrific force, making life on deck far from comfortable, while down in the fire and engine rooms the temperature reached 150 degree Fahrenheit. The Oregon plunged ahead at a speed of fourteen and a half knots, with only natural draught. For ten hours she ran at this speed. In this forced run James McGaragle, first fireman, was prostrated by heat, but in a few minutes recovered and insisted on being taken back to his post. At no time

during the entire voyage was the temperature in the engine-room ever below 125 degrees.

At Bahia came the expected news that war had been declared. It was received with cheers by the men, and the volunteer band struck up "Yankee Doodle" and "Hail Columbia."

At Rio a bare bulletin of Dewey's victory was received, and that set the Oregon's crew crazy with enthusiasm. Every "jackie" was wearing on his cap, in addition to the regular ship's ribbon, a ribbon inscribed in ink, "Remember the Maine." These supplementary ribbons had been made on shipboard, and when the news of actual war and the victory of Manila was received every cap came off and nearly 500 throats gave utterance to the slogan attached thereto.

The coal bunkers were replenished at Rio and anchor was weighed there on the morning of May 4th for a run up the coast as far as Cape Trio. There the Oregon left the Marietta and returned to Rio to get the Nictheroy, the cruiser bought from the Brazilian Government. But here the neutrality laws offered interference. The Brazilian Government feared complications if the Nictheroy left at the same time as the Oregon, and the latter was forced to depart without her. She went back to Cape Trio, picked up the Marietta and sent the latter back to wait for the former Brazilian ship. On the evening of May 5th both the Marietta and the Nictheroy came along, the Nictheroy having been allowed to leave port twenty-four hours after the departure of the battleship.

Now again a sharp lookout was kept for the enemy, and every officer and man firmly expected to see some Spanish ships and have an engagement. Whatever the odds might have been, the Oregon was ready, even anxious, for the fray. The three ships were steaming northward. At midnight on May 5th the Marietta and Nictheroy were ordered to Bahia to report to the government at Washington, and the Oregon steamed north alone.

The Oregon expected to see the Temerario in spite of having been told in Rio that as soon as the Spanish gunboat learned the Oregon was coming along she had put hurriedly into a creek. Late on the evening of May 8th the Oregon put into Bahia, and when the population there gazed on the battleship the next morning their eyes bulged with surprise. Rumors had arrived there that the Oregon had been sunk.

PAINTED IN WAR COLORS.

While in Bahia the ship was changed from white to the regulation war colors. It was feared this even might be considered in violation of neutrality regulations, so a ruse was adopted. One hundred men were lowered over the off shore side in the darkness of the night and soon finished painting that side. Then, when the ship swung around with the tide, the other side was painted in similar manner.

While in Bahia orders were received from Washington respecting the Spanish fleet. It was reported by Washington that seven vessels of the Cape Verde fleet had sailed westward. The evening the news was received Captain Clark called his officers around him for consultation. He hesitated about telling the crew, fearing they would be alarmed by the apparent presence in the vicinity of such a formidable fleet, but the next morning he decided it best to take the men into his confidence, and all hands were summoned to general muster. Captain Clark then said:

"It is our duty in time of war to avoid so superior a force, but if we do meet them we will impair their fighting efficiency."

The cheers that came from the crew in reply to these few words showed the spirit of the jackies. They were more eager than ever. Captain Clark said to them they were the finest crew he ever commanded.

Then an even more rigid lookout, if that were possible, was ordered, but the journey to Sand Key proved to be uneventful.

The Oregon reached Jupiter Inlet on May 24th, Key West on May 26th, and three days later left to join the fleet off Cuba. The part she bore in the destruction of Cervera's fleet off Santiago makes the most brilliant page in the history of that great battle. Only her great speed and the tactics of the Brooklyn prevented the escape of the Spanish Admiral in his fast flagship.

To the Oregon belongs the credit of practically ending the war with Spain, so far as the navy was concerned, for it was a 13-inch shell from her guns that forced the Cristobal Colon to surrender.

But the work of the Oregon was not finished. Her record as a seagoer was yet to be crowned by another long and lonely trip. During the peace negotiations it seemed not improbable that international complications might arise in the Philippines and it was generally under-

stood that the Oregon and possibly the Iowa would be sent to reinforce Admiral Dewey's fleet.

It was only necessary to put the Oregon in dry-dock at the Brooklyn Navy Yard for a few days to make her ready for the voyage back to the Pacific. In company with the Iowa and attended by the collier Scindia, the distilling ship Iris, and refrigerator ship Celtic, she sailed from New York October 12, 1898.

The vessels on the way to the Pacific reached Bahia, Brazil, on October 30th, completing the first leg of the voyage. Thence a quick and easy run took them to Rio Janeiro. Sailing from Rio at the 200 knots a day rate ordered by the Navy Department, Cape Horn was rounded without a mishap, and the Oregon halted again at Callao, Peru. January 11th the special squadron left Callao for the Galapagos Islands. The Justin was detached on the same day, and three days later the Iowa and Celtic were detached, the Oregon, Scindia and Iris proceeding to Honolulu via the Galapagos Islands. The diminished squadron arrived at Charles Island, the southernmost of the Galapagos group, on January 16th, and on the 18th the Oregon steamed out alone for Honolulu, thence to Manila. On February 4th she sighted the tall peaks of Hawaii, Mauna Loa and Maui, and in the evening of that day lay outside of Pearl Harbor. The Scindia and Iris arrived on the 11th. At Honolulu the Oregon's officers and crew learned of the fighting at Manila, which increased their desire to be off to Manila.

On February 24, 1899, came Dewey's famous message to the Secretary of the Navy: "For political reasons the Oregon should be sent here at once." Fit as a ship could be, it left Honolulu on February 27th to cover the 4,000 knots to the Philippines, with but one stop at the Island of Guam.

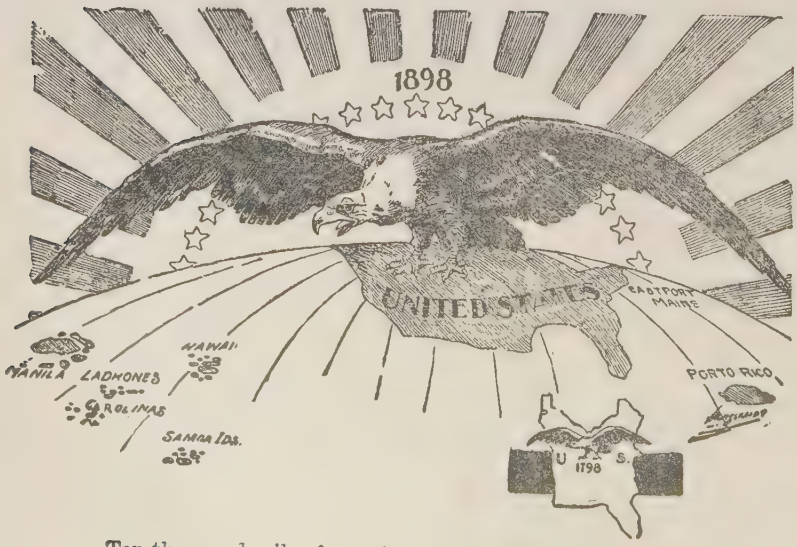
Just at sunset, March 18, 1899, while the band on shore was playing "The Star Spangled Banner," with the troops at parade and the warships in the harbor drooping their colors, the great battleship Oregon steamed into Manila Bay at full speed.

She rushed ahead until abreast of the flagship Olympia, where she saluted Admiral Dewey, and dropped anchor amid the cheers of steamers afloat and soldiers ashore.

The Oregon made the voyage from Honolulu without incident, and arrived in as perfect condition as when she made her famous trip around the Horn to help smash the Spanish fleet off Santiago.

The Oregon is a steel battleship, 348 feet long and 69¼ feet broad, with a mean normal draught of 24 feet; she is of 10,250 tons displacement; horse-power over 11,000. She carries four 13-inch and eight 8-inch guns in turrets, and four 6-inch guns en barbette. Her secondary battery consists of twenty 6-pounders, eight 1-pounders and four Gatlings. She also has six torpedo tubes. She was launched in 1893 and had her trial trip in 1896. The contract speed was 15 knots and a bonus of $25,000 was stipulated for each quarter-knot excess.

The men who brought the gallant ship from the Pacific to the Atlantic and then took her upon the long journey to the Philippines, Captain Charles E. Clark and Chief Engineer Robert W. Milligan, were members of the trial board, the other member being Rear Admiral L. A. Beardslee. On the trial trip the Oregon developed and maintained a speed of 16.791 knots, and her builders, Messrs. Irving M. and Henry Scott, of the Union Iron Works, San Francisco, received a bonus of $175,000. On her great trip from San Francisco to Key West she averaged over 11 knots for 1,300 hours.



Ten thousand miles from tip to tip.—Philadelphia Press.

CHAPTER XXXII.

THE NICARAGUA CANAL.

HOW THE TRIP OF THE OREGON REVIVED INTEREST IN THIS GREAT PROJECT TO CONNECT THE ATLANTIC AND PACIFIC OCEANS—A COMMERCIAL AND NAVAL NECESSITY.

THE most liberal education the American public has had concerning the Nicaragua Canal was supplied by the trip of the battleship Oregon around the horn. That famous voyage did more to familiarize the reading public with the projected waterway to connect the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans than all the articles, official reports, prospectuses and maps relating to it that have been published. Previous to that voyage few knew and only a small per cent of those who knew cared anything about a canal in Central America. Many regarded it as simply a scheme to secure rich contracts or subsidies from the government. Some who knew of it were opposed to its construction because they were unable to determine whether it should be a government or private enterprise, and still others because of the specious arguments advanced against it by the transcontinental railroads with which it would become a competing commercial highway.

But the trip of the Oregon presented the whole matter in an entirely new light. The eyes of the nation were upon the great battleship as she made that record-breaking voyage of 17,000 miles. People got out their atlases and marked her course down the western coast of North, Central and South America and up the eastern coast until she reached her destination. Before her arrival war had been declared, and a Spanish squadron of seven vessels was heading for American waters. When or where it would strike no one knew. It was among the possibilities that it might intercept the lone American warship and engage it in unequal conflict.

Attention was also directed to the fact that the withdrawal of the Oregon from the Pacific deprived the western coast of its greatest defender, and it was plainly apparent that if the Spanish Asiatic squadron should appear off the Pacific coast that a fleet could not be dispatched from the Atlantic in time to prevent the bombardment of Western coast cities.

All of these conditions drew special attention to the little narrow strip of land in Nicaragua between the Pacific Ocean and Lake Nicaragua and another narrow strip between the lake and the Atlantic. It was plain to be seen that if the oceans were connected with this lake by canal that the Oregon's trip of 17,000 miles could have been shortened to a little more than 4,000 miles, and that the entire strength of the American navy could be easily and quickly concentrated on either coast.

Aside from the commercial importance of such a waterway, the fact which most impressed the people was that the construction of the Nicaragua Canal was a naval necessity, and it was this fact which revived interest in the great project and crystallized public sentiment in favor of it. The Nicaragua Canal therefore became one of the important problems of the war, and engaged the attention of the people as no mere commercial problem could do.

The construction of a trans-isthmian canal is not a new proposition. It may be said to date from the time that Balbao, the Spanish conquistadore, crossed the Isthmus of Darien and first viewed the narrow neck of land in the South Pacific, September 25, 1513. But it was not until 1522, when Gil Gonzales Davila discovered the lake country of Nicaragua, that the Nicaraguan Canal project had birth. Davila was exploring the western coast at the time of the discovery. All the lake tribes of Indians at that time were ruled by a chieftain called Nicarao. It was from these Indians that the Spanish explorer learned that the lake was connected with the Atlantic Ocean (North Sea) by a river (the Rio San Juan). As was the custom in those days when taking possession of newly discovered countries, Davila rode his horse into the waters and took possession of Lake Nicaragua in the King's name. He gave it the name Nicarao-agua (Nicarao's water) in honor of the aboriginal ruler. A large trade sprung up between Granada, the chief city of the lakes, and Spanish ports, notably Nombre de Dios and Cadiz, by way of Lake Nicaragua and the Rio San Juan. It was the richly-laden Spanish ships on this route that suffered at the hands of Sir Francis Drake when he

sailed through the Straits of Magellan in 1579 and harried Spanish commerce in the Pacific.

In the next century the buccaneers of the Spanish Main attacked the fort (San Carlos) at the lake entrance and burned the town of Leon. As a result the river was rendered unnavigable by the Spaniards, who threw rocks and other obstructions in the rapids, and opened the mouth of the Brazo Colorado, the southern branch of the Rio San Juan. Large volumes of volcanic sand silted up and destroyed what was the finest harbor on the Caribbean coast, San Juan del Norte, which according to the adopted survey of the canal is the eastern end of the projected water-way.

It was not until 1825 that the United States took the initial step looking to a water connection between the oceans. In that year Henry Clay, Secretary of State, ordered that an examination be made as to the feasibility of constructing such a maritime highway, and ten years later President Andrew Jackson appointed a commissioner to examine the proposed route and negotiate a concession. That and other efforts of the United States government failed of any practical result. In 1876, however, the United States government obtained a survey and report which in all essential details correspond to the route finally adopted.

The eastern terminus is at the City of America (so named by the Nicaraguan government), about two miles above San Juan del Norte. From there to a junction with the San Juan river at a navigable point is thirty-five miles. From this point to Lake Nicaragua the river becomes a part of the canal, the distance between the junction and the lake being 64½ miles. The lake is then utilized for a distance of 54½ miles. This leaves but 15½ miles of actual canal construction upon the western end between Lake Nicaragua and Brito, the western terminus, which is 8 miles north of San Juan del Sur. The entire distance is computed at 169½ English or statute miles, and 147 geographical or nautical miles. The estimated cost of the canal varies from $60,000,000 to $100,000,000, the latter sum probably being the closer estimate, as it is impossible to foresee all the difficulties and obstructions in the way of the completion of this great work.

Probably no similar undertaking has ever been subjected to such an exhaustive preliminary examination and such thorough investigation. More than 4,000 miles of country have been surveyed under the

greatest difficulties. Swamps and jungles have been penetrated where vegetation was so luxuriant that progress could only be made by cutting a path with a machete or an axe, and quite frequently members of the engineering party were mired breast deep in the marshes along the line of survey. But American engineering skill surmounted every obstacle and overcame every difficulty, and the government was at last furnished with a complete survey of a direct route to connect the oceans at a minimum distance and a minimum cost.

In estimating the cost of the canal three great engineering problems had to be considered. One was the reclamation of the harbor at the eastern terminus, another was the construction of a dam at Ochoa where the canal unites with the San Juan river, and the third to cut through the Great Divide on the western end. At the point where the canal intersects the San Juan river there are dangerous rapids, but the proposed dam raises the river to the lake level and gives a depth of 34 feet of water above them. The deep cut in the Cordilleras varies from 140 to 330 feet in depth, but nature has provided a clay soil instead of shifting sands, which greatly facilitates the work.

Another significant item of expense is the flooding of valleys and closing their outlets, thus utilizing the deep basins nature has provided and making them commercially valuable in times of peace and strategically valuable in time of war.

For the purpose of constructing this great waterway a company known as the Maritime Canal Company was organized in October, 1886, and in February, 1899, received a charter from the United States government. On June 8, 1890, the work of construction was commenced, headquarters being established at America, but the financial panic of 1893 brought about a cessation of the work so auspiciously begun.

During the three years of work, however, much progress was made. Wharves, warehouses, workshops and dwellings were constructed, eleven miles of railway and sixty miles of telegraph were built. An exclusive franchise for the navigation of the San Juan river was obtained, and a large dredging plant purchased and put in operation. Twenty miles of right of way was cleared and one mile of actual excavation made.

The advantages to be derived from the Nicaragua Canal by the United States, both from a naval and commercial standpoint, are almost innumerable.

In 1780 England's great Admiral Nelson (then a captain) said: "I intend to possess the great Lake of Nicaragua, which I regard as the inland Gibraltar of Spanish America." The application of that term is apparent when it is considered that Lake Nicaragua, the largest between Lake Michigan and Lake Titicaca, Peru, is 110 miles in length, with an average width of 40 miles, large enough to shelter all the navies of the world, and capable of being made a stronghold and an unassailable base of supplies. As a naval station between the Atlantic and Pacific fleets it gives the United States command of two oceans and makes both coasts secure against naval surprises from either European or Asiatic nations. The new possessions of the United States in the Pacific gives increased importance to American naval operations in western waters, and the Nicaragua Canal is the naval key to the Pacific.

But "peace hath her victories no less renowned than war," and the growth of American commerce in Asia makes the canal as much of a commercial necessity as the growth of colonial power in the Pacific makes it a naval necessity. It has been shown that the demand for raw and manufactured cotton in Asia alone is equal to the entire cotton production of the Southern States, and shipments of this product through the Nicaragua Canal would give American cotton an advantage in price over cotton from any other part of the world. But it is not only the Southern States to be benefited, for the Nicaragua Canal gives the Western States an advantage in European markets now denied them by reason of the long trans-continental haul. It also brings the Northern States of the western coast into close contact with the Southern States of the eastern coast. For instance, the distance from San Francisco to Liverpool by way of Cape Horn is 15,620 nautical miles; by way of the Nicaragua Canal is only 7,627 miles. From San Francisco to New York around the horn is 15,660 nautical miles; via the Nicaragua Canal it is but 4,907. From San Francisco to New Orleans around the horn is 16,000 miles; via the Nicaragua Canal it is 4,147 miles. The advantages of water transportation over rail where large shipments are made make these figures of wonderful significance.

Not since the inception of the canal project has there been such interest in the undertaking as marked the end of the Spanish-American war, and, indeed, there never before was a time in the history of the country, when the United States had more at stake in that enterprise.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

CUBA. THE "PEARL OF THE ANTILLES."

DESCRIPTION OF ITS RESOURCES AND POPULATION, TOGETHER WITH THE PRINCIPAL EVENTS IN ITS HISTORY—ITS RELATION TO THE UNITED STATES —STORY OF CUBAN LIBERTY.

HILE Cuba did not come into possession of the United States as a result of the Spanish-American War, the United States Government, through its war declarations, became responsible for the establishment of a safe and stable government in that island, thus standing in the relation of a foster parent to a child.

This relationship and the fact of its proximity to the United States creates as much interest among Americans concerning its affairs as if it were a colony of the great republic. Then, too, strictly speaking, Cuba was the casus belli of the Spanish-American war. It is our nearest neighbor and its people, climate and physical characteristics are much the same as those of our newly acquired possessions.

The Island of Cuba, the largest of the Antilles, is situated at the entrance of the Gulf of Mexico, between 20 and 23 degrees north latitude and 74 and 85 degrees west longitude from Greenwich. It is distant from Yucatan, Mexico, 114 miles, and from Florida 130 miles, and its location gave rise to its being called "The Key to the Gulf of Mexico." On the coat of arms of Havana there appears a key as one of the most conspicuous objects, as if the intention were to express the idea that possession of the island, and especially of its capital city, implied the ability to open or close at any moment the Gulf of Mexico to the commerce of the world. The coast line of Cuba is extensive, and it possesses a number of large and safe harbors. The northern coast, the greater part of which is free from shoals, keys, and other obstacles, has a length of about 918 miles, with 32 harbors, of which

10 are of the first class. First in importance is the Harbor of Havana, followed by those of Mariel, Cabanas, Bahia Honda, Matanzas, Cardenas, Sagua, Caibarien, Nuevitas, Jibara, etc. The southern coast has a length of 972 miles, with 12 important harbors. Of these, Guantanamo, which figured in the military and naval operations, is spacious and of easy access, affording shelter to vessels drawing 26 feet. The harbors of Santiago de Cuba and Cienfuegos are also of considerable importance.

The area of the Island of Cuba has not been exactly determined. The estimates vary from about 35,000 to 72,000 square miles. Taking the lowest estimate (35,000 square miles), the island would be nearly equal in size to the State of Indiana (36,350) and nearly three times the size of the State of Maryland (12,210). It is slightly larger than the State of Maine (33,040). The island is traversed by a chain of mountains extending from east-southeast to north-northwest. The highest mountains are found in the southeastern part of the island. The greatest elevation is about 8,000 feet. The soil of Cuba is watered by more than 200 rivers, among which figure the Cauto, in the province of Santiago de Cuba, 150 miles long, about 50 of which are navigable for small craft, and the Sagua, in the province of Santa Clara, of the length of 111 miles, 21 of which are navigable.

CLIMATE AND POPULATION.

With the exception of localities where malarial fevers prevail, the climate of Cuba is healthful, especially in the rural districts in the east and center of the island. There are only two marked seasons in Cuba, the dry and the rainy. The first lasts from November to May and the second from May to October, but during the dry season sufficient rain falls to give the soil the necessary humidity. The mean temperature in Havana is about 78¼ degrees F. In the interior, the average temperature does not exceed 73.4 degrees F. In ordinary years the temperature never rises above 86 degrees F. in August, and in exceptional years the maximum temperature in the hottest months is 88 degrees F. In winter the temperature rarely goes below 54 degrees F. Snow is unknown even on the mountains, and frost has formed only on some of the highest summits. The great drawback for unacclimated persons in Cuba is the prevalence of yellow fever, but this is confined mainly to towns where the sanitary conditions have been bad.

According to an official census of 1890, the population of Cuba was then 1,631,687. For three years Cuba has been the theater of war, and great mortality and devastation have occurred. It may be assumed that the present population is not in excess of the figures of 1890, and it may be considerably lower. It has been estimated that, taking as a basis the proportion of population to area in the Kingdom of Belgium (482 inhabitants to the square mile) Cuba could support 24,000,000 people. Of the population in 1890, the percentages according to race were: White, 65; colored and Chinese, 35. The actual number of white Cubans was given as 950,000; colored Cubans, 500,000, and Spaniards, 160,000.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

Under the Spanish administration Cuba was divided into three regions—the western, central and eastern. Each region comprises two provinces, divided into several judicial districts, and these again subdivided into municipal sections. The western region embraces the provinces of Pinar del Rio and Havana; the central comprises the provinces of Matanzas and Santa Clara, and the eastern provinces are made up of Puerto Principe and Santiago de Cuba. The capital of the island is the city of Havana.

Prior to 1898 the island was governed by a Governor and Captain-General, appointed by the Spanish Crown, who was the superior political, military and economic chief. Each of the six provinces was administered by a Governor. On January 1, 1898, the Spanish Government adopted a system of autonomous government for the island, providing for popular representation in the administration of affairs, but it was not accepted by the insurgents and had no practical effect. Under the terms of the suspension of hostilities between the United States and Spain, the affairs of the island were to be administered by the military commanders of the United States forces until such time as the native government proves stable.

CITIES AND TOWNS

Havana, capital of the province of the same name and of the island, is situated on the northern coast, and has a harbor which has long been famous for its commerce. The city has about 200,000 inhabitants. It is the residence of the Captain-General and other authorities of the

HOBSON ON THE BRIDGE OF THE "MERRIMAC,"
(JUNE 3RD).

HOBSON ON THE BRIDGE OF THE MERRIMAC, DEIGNAN AT THE WHEEL (JUNE 3RD).

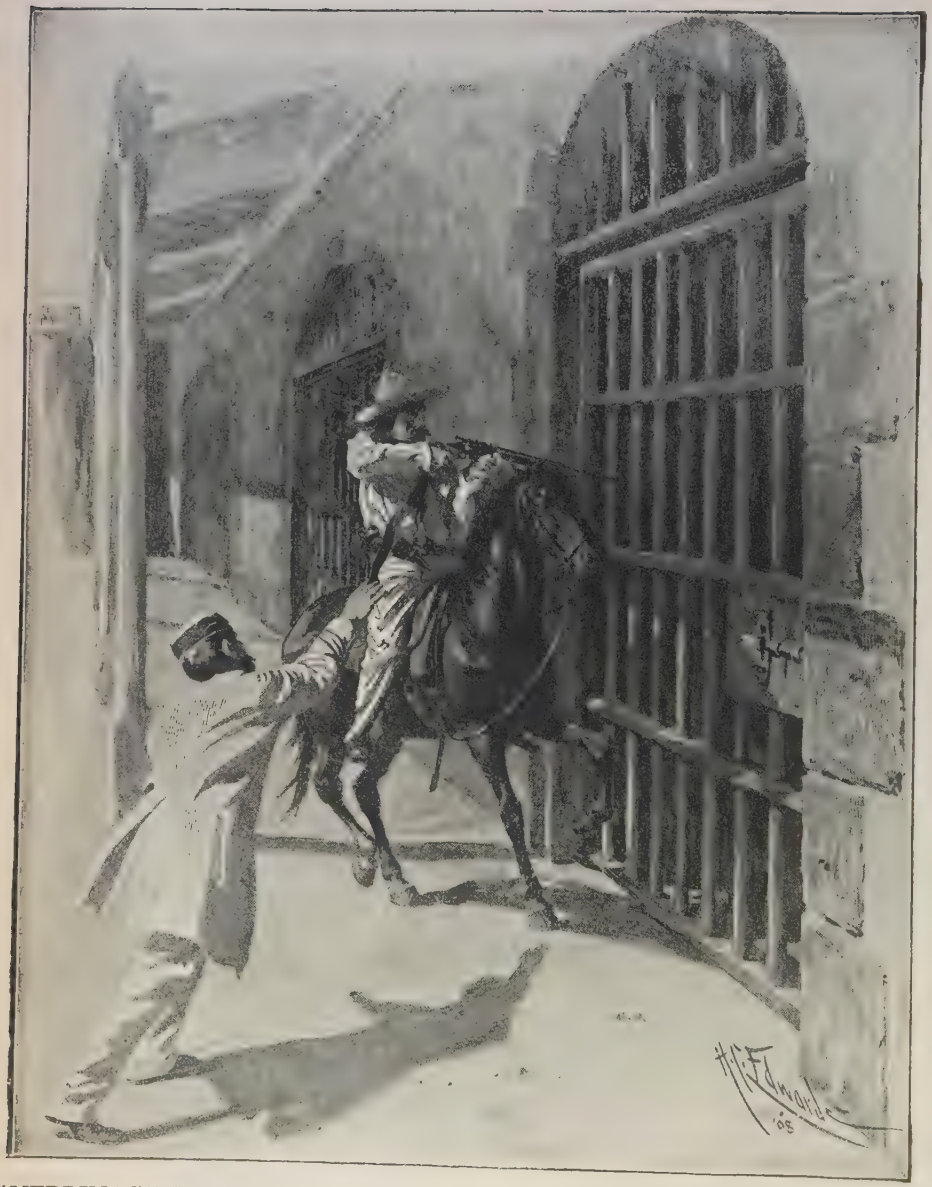
"The wind from this shot carried away my cap."

ON THE "MERRIMAC."

Kelly emerging from the Fire-Room—Lieutenant Hobson drew his revolver and covered him for a moment, not realizing who it might be.

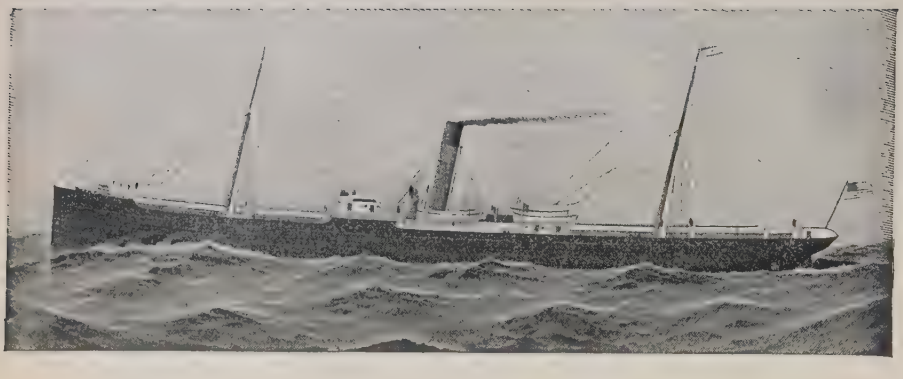
BLOWING UP THE "MERRIMAC" WITH TORPEDOES, AFTER ANCHORING HER IN POSITION ACROSS THE CHANNEL.

CAPTURE OF HOBSON AND THE "MERRIMAC" MEN—ADMIRAL CERVERA AND SPANISH MARINES APPROACHING IN A STEAM LAUNCH FROM THE "REINA MERCEDES."



"MERRIMAC" PRISONERS ATTACKED BY A WOUNDED SPANISH CAVALRYMAN, DURING THE BATTLE OF SANTIAGO, JULY 1ST.

OSBORN W. DEIGNAN, THE HELMSMAN
OF THE "MERRIMAC."



"MERRIMAC."

UNDER THE STARS AND STRIPES AGAIN.

Soldiers Cheering Lieutenant Hobson on his Safe Return to the American Lines.

island. It is defended by eight forts, one of which is the famous Morro Castle; has a fine navy yard, arsenal, gun manufacturing and repair shops, barracks and hospitals, three large markets, twenty-four churches, six theaters, a university, a school of fine arts, several public libraries and many educational institutions. There are several manufactories, and the city is traversed by tramways and omnibus lines. It has communication with the rest of the island by means of railroad lines. It is lighted by gas and electricity. About eighty newspapers and other periodicals are published in Havana.

Pinar del Rio, capital of the province of Pinar del Rio, has a population of about 30,000. It is situated about 135 miles from Havana, and is noted for the fine quality of the tobacco grown in its neighborhood.

Matanzas, capital of the province of Matanzas, 66 miles from Havana, has a population of 56,000. In its vicinity are the fine Bellamar Caves and the noted valley of the Yumuri.

Cardenas, a commercial port of the northern coast, about 90 miles from Havana, has a population of 23,000.

Santa Clara, 216 miles from Havana, has a population of 32,000.

Sagua la Grande, province of Santa Clara, situated on the River Sagua la Grande, seven miles from its mouth, has a population of 18,000.

Cienfuegos, province of Santa Clara, has a population of 40,000. It is situated on the fine port of Jagua and is a thriving center of trade. Besides the foregoing towns in the province of Santa Clara, there are Trinidad, 29,000 inhabitants; Santi Espiritus, 29,000 inhabitants; and San Juan de los Remedios, 15,000 inhabitants.

Puerto Principe, capital of the province of Puerto Principe, has a population of 49,000.

Santiago de Cuba, capital of the province of Santiago de Cuba, has a population of 50,000. Santiago has a fine harbor and a number of important public buildings, including a famous cathedral.

Among the other towns of importance in the province of Santiago de Cuba are Manzanillo, Bayamo, Jiguani, Holguin, Jibara, Guantanamo and Baracoa.

MINERAL AND AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES.

Early in its history Cuba was famous for the quantity and quality of its gold, and gold mines are still in operation in the central and

eastern parts of the island. Silver mines are also found in several localities. The greatest mineral wealth of the island lies in its abundant mines of fine copper. Deposits of this metal, believed to be almost inexhaustible, are located chiefly in the eastern portion of the island, in the mountains, which, by reason of this circumstance, are known as Sierra del Cobre (Copper Mountains). In 1891, in the district of Santiago de Cuba alone, 296 mining grants were issued, including iron and manganese mines. The iron ore of Cuba is of superior quality, and with improved facilities for communication and development, it is believed there will be an immense output of this metal. The iron mines of Juragua, in the province of Santiago de Cuba, have been worked by United States capital. The ore was exported to Philadelphia, where it was utilized to the extent of 15,000 tons per month. Asphalt and mineral oil deposits are found in several parts of the island. There are several asphalt deposits in the provinces of Havana, Pinar del Rio and Santa Clara. The Cuban asphalt is said to rival that of Trinidad as regards its adaptability for street paving, gas making and other industrial uses.

The great wealth of Cuba, however, lies in the wonderful fertility of its soil. The island has 35,000,000 acres of land, but in 1868, according to official statistics, only 2,689,400 were under cultivation; 9,974,134 acres were utilized in cattle raising, and nearly 16,000,000 were still virgin forest. Ten years later, after the end of the long insurrection, considerable land was cleared, and the production of sugar assumed large proportions. On the other hand, old lands were abandoned, and the acreage was not greatly increased. It may be assumed, therefore, that only a small fraction of the agricultural wealth of Cuba has been developed, and that at least 20,000,000 acres of land awaited the application of industry and capital at the conclusion of the late war.

The principal industry of Cuba has been for many years the cultivation of sugar cane and the making of sugar, but this industry suffered by the competition of European beet sugar and the internal disorders of the island. With the occupation of the island by the United States the sugar industry again revived, and became remunerative. The great advantage of sugar growing in Cuba is found in the fact that the cane reproduces itself without the necessity of resowing for ten, fifteen, or twenty years, according to the nature of the soil. The sugar is of superior quality, and the proximity of the island to the United States of

America is a favoring condition. The production of sugar from 1894 to 1895 aggregated over 1,000,000 tons. From 1895 to 1896 it was only 225,000 tons.

Cuba has long been famous for the superiority of its tobacco. Efforts have been made to rival the Cuban tobacco in different parts of the world, but it seems to hold its own as excelling all others. The plant is grown in greatest abundance in the western part of the island, Vuelta Abajo, and in some localities in the provinces of Santa Clara and Santiago de Cuba. Next in rank in quality and quantity is the product of the district of Manicaragua, in the province of Santa Clara. The Vuelta Abajo region, where the best tobacco on the island is raised, suffered considerably from the insurrection, and the crop for 1897 did not exceed 30,000 bales of 110 pounds—a tenth part, approximately, of the ordinary yield. Nearly all the leaf tobacco and about half the twist of Cuba is exported to the United States.

Coffee for a long time constituted one of the principal products of Cuba, but since 1845 the development of the coffee product of Brazil and other countries, together with economic conditions in Cuba, caused the cultivation to decline, and since then coffee has been raised almost exclusively for local consumption.

Besides sugar, tobacco and coffee Cuba produces all the different classes of fruits known to the Tropics, and many of those belonging to the temperate zone. Among them are the pineapple, the banana, the orange, the mango and the guava. The cocoanut is also an important product. The forest wealth of Cuba is very great and but slightly developed. The island is rich in cabinet wood, among which the most important are mahogany and cedar. Among the trees the one most characteristic of a Cuban landscape is the palm, of which there are 32 species. Its wood and leaves are employed in the manufacture of several articles of trade, including hats and baskets. The soil of the island is well adapted to the production of all kinds of vegetables. The Cuban potato is as good as that of Bermuda or Peru, and the sweet potatoes are of superior quality.

Many efforts have been made in the Island of Cuba to attract to its shore the beneficial currents of foreign immigration. They have succeeded fully in so far as securing the settlement in the country of a large number of citizens of the United States and of German subjects, who, by engaging in agriculture and commercial business, have con-

tributed largely to the development of the wealth of the island. As there are no public lands in Cuba to any considerable extent, no measure of colonization, properly so called, has been accompanied with success.

The uncleared forests of the Island of Cuba cover an area of 15,544,367 acres, according to official statistics taken before the outbreak of the war in 1868. There were 2,689,400 acres under cultivation in the shape of sugar estates, coffee plantations, tobacco farms and minor agricultural establishments of all kinds; 9,974,134 acres were entirely set apart for the cattle-raising industry.

From 1511 to 1719 grants of public land were made by the municipalities of the island. The grants consisted of tracts of land set apart in a circular form. There were two classes: one called "hato," which was a circular piece of land having a radius of two leagues and intended for the raising of black cattle, and the "corral," having a radius of one league and supposed to be devoted to minor cattle and industries. The granting of this public land was discontinued in 1719.

There can be pointed out three different sections in the island, each distinctly characterized by its adaptability to a certain kind of industry. Pinar del Rio, the westernmost province of the island, is distinguished for its excellent and unsurpassed tobacco. Havana, Matanzas and Santa Clara provinces are devoted almost entirely to the cultivation of sugar cane and to the sugar industry. Puerto Principe (which occupies the center of the island) is the cattle-raising province, and Santiago de Cuba the mining, fruit, and coffee section of Cuba.

COMMERCE OF CUBA.

The industries and commerce of Cuba were greatly diminished by the state of insurrection and war which existed in the island for more than three years. The imports of the island during the fiscal year ended April, 1896, amounted to $66,166,754, and the exports to $94,395,536. In 1893 the trade of Cuba with the United States alone showed the following figures: Imports, $78,706,506; exports, $24,157,698. The trade had fallen off during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1897, to imports, $18,406,815; exports, $8,259,776. During the years 1891-1896, inclusive, the commerce of Cuba with Spain amounted to about $30,000,000 per annum, but in 1892 it rose to as much as $37,600,000, and in 1895 to

about $33,500,000. The imports of Cuba from Spain were usually about three times the exports of Cuba to Spain, the latter being about $4,250,000 in 1896 and $9,570,000 in 1892. The imports from Spain ranged during the six years between $22,000,000 in 1891 and $28,000,000 in 1892.

In normal years Cuba exports the greater part of its products to the United States, the principal articles being sugar, molasses and tobacco, but by reason of the operation of the former Spanish tariff, discriminating in favor of Spanish products, the island imported from the United States a relatively small proportion of what it consumed. Spain and Great Britain furnished the greater part of the imports of Cuba.

RAILROADS AND TELEGRAPH LINES.

This rich and fertile soil with its wealth of agricultural and mineral resources, where droughts, floods, and frosts are unknown, was practically undeveloped, owing to the total absence of transportation facilities either by rail or by roads.

In the whole province of Santiago de Cuba there were 80 miles of railroad at the time of American occupation and not a mile of road deserving the name between any two towns or villages, excepting narrow paths scarce allowing a horse or a mule to pass, through the woods, across streams and over the mountains.

Telegraphic communication exists between the different interior towns and principal villages, over Spanish Government lines put up in the rudest fashion, many wires resting on trees without the vestige of an insulator. The dependence that can be placed on such lines is obvious. It would be natural to expect Santiago de Cuba and Havana to be communicated by land wires; but as a fact, the only telegraphic communication between the eastern and western capitals is over an English cable between Santiago and Cienfuegos, where the message is transmitted to or from Havana by land.

There are 10 railway companies in Cuba, the most important being the Ferrocarriles Unidos; upward of 1,000 miles of main line belong to these companies, and there are, besides, private branch lines to all the important sugar estates. The Ferrocarriles Unidos has four lines, connecting Havana with Matanzas, Batabano, Union, and Guanajay. The roads pass through the most populous part of the country and connect Havana with other lines.

The Western Railway was begun in 1859, and in 1891, when it was acquired by an English company, had reached Puerto de Golpe, 96 miles from Havana and 10 miles from Pinar del Rio, the capital of the province of that name and the center of the tobacco-growing district. The line has been completed to Pinar del Rio, and improvements have been made in the old part, many of the bridges having been replaced by new steel ones, the rails renewed, modern cars put on, etc.

The other companies are: Ferrocarriles Cardenas-Jacaro, the main line of which joins the towns of Cardenas and Santa Clara; Ferrocarril de Matanzas, having lines between Matanzas and Murga, and also between Matanzas and Guareiras; Ferrocarril de Sagua la Grande, running between Concha and Cruces; Ferrocarril Cienfuegos-Santa Clara, connecting those towns; Ferrocarriles Unidos de Caibarien, from Caibarien to Placetas; Ferrocarril de Porto Principe-Nuevitas; Ferrocarril de Guantanamo.

The Marianao Railway also belongs to an English company, with headquarters in London. The original line, belonging to Cubans, was opened in 1863. The line, only 8½ miles in length, runs from Havana to Marianao, with a branch line to a small village on the coast. During 1894, over 750,000 passengers were carried, this being the chief source of revenue. The carriages are of the American type and are fitttd, as well as the locomotives, with the Westinghouse automatic brake; the rails are of steel, weighing 60 pounds per yard.

The national carriage is the volante, and no other is used in the country. It consists of a two-seated carriage, slung low down by leather straps from the axle of two large wheels, and has shafts 15 feet long. The horse in the shaft is led by a postilion, whose horse is also harnessed to the carriage with traces. In case of a long and rough journey, a third horse is harnessed on the other side of the shafts in the same manner. The carriage is extremely comfortable to travel in, and the height of the wheels and their distance apart prevent all danger of turning over, although the roads in the country are, for the most part, mere tracks through fields and open land.

Ox carts and pack mules are used for conveying goods in the interior of the island, outside of the railway lines.

There are four cable lines connected with Cuba: The International Ocean Telegraph Company has a cable from Havana to Florida; the Cuban Submarine Company has a cable connecting Havana with Santi-

ago de Cuba and Cienfuegos; the West India and Panama Company has a cable connecting Havana with Santiago de Cuba, Jamaica, Porto Rico, the Lesser Antilles, and the Isthmus of Panama; the Compagnie Francaise de Cables Sous-Marins has a line connecting Havana with Santiago de Cuba, Haiti, Santo Domingo, Venezuela and Brazil.

The only three towns in Cuba having cable connections are Havana, Cienfuegos, and Santiago de Cuba.

The telegraph and telephone systems in Cuba belong to the Government, but the latter is farmed out for a limited number of years to a company called the Red Telefonica de la Habana. Nearly all the public and private buildings in the city and suburbs are connected by telephone. The Stateman's Year Book, 1898, says that there are 2,300 miles of telegraph line, with 153 offices.

Havana is connected by regular lines of steamers with United States and Spanish ports. Lines of steamboats connect at Tampa and Pensacola, Fla., with the Florida railroads, and by means of them with the various railroad systems of the United States.

The metric system of weights and measures is in use in Cuba. The ones most commonly employed are: Kilogram (2.2046 pounds); hectoliter (26.418 gallons); meter (39.37 inches); kilometer (0.62137 mile); hectare (2.471 acres). Other weights and measures in occasional use are the arroba (dry), which is equal to 25.3664 pounds; arroba (liquid), 4.263 gallons; fanega, 1.599 bushels; libra. 1.0161 pounds; and vara, 33.384 inches.

HISTORICAL FACTS ABOUT CUBA.

Cuba was discovered by Columbus, October 28, 1492. He named the island Juana in honor of Prince Juan; later the name was changed to Fernandina, in honor of the deceased Ferdinand, again changed to Santiago and lastly to Ave Maria, but the Indian name Cuba clung and still clings to it.

Cuba is not less beautiful than it was when Columbus first saw it, and this is his own description given to the Court of Spain:

"When I reached Juana, I followed its coast to the westward, and found it so large that I thought it must be mainland, the province of Cathay; and as I found neither towns nor villages on the sea coast, but only some hamlets, with the inhabitants of which I could not hold conversation, because they all immediately fled, I kept on the same route,

thinking that I could not fail to light upon some large cities or towns. At length, after the proceeding of many leagues, and finding that nothing new presented itself, and that the coast was leading me northwards (which I wished to avoid, because the winter had already set in, and it was my intention to move southwards; and because moreover the winds were contrary), I resolved not to wait for a change in the weather, but to return to a certain harbor which I had remarked, and from which I sent two men ashore to ascertain whether there was any king or large cities in that part. They journeyed for three days, and found countless small hamlets, with numberless inhabitants, but with nothing like order; they therefore returned. In the meantime I had learned from some other Indians, whom I had seized, that this land was certainly an island; accordingly, I followed the coast eastward for a distance of 107 leagues, where it ended in a cape. From this cape I saw another island to the eastward, at a distance of eighteen leagues from the former, to which I gave the name of La Espanola. Thither I went and followed its northern coast (just the same as I had done with the coast of Juana), 118 full miles due east. This island, like all others, is extraordinarily large, and this one extremely so. In it are many seaports, with which none that I know in Christendom can bear comparison, so good and capacious that it is a wonder to see. The lands are high, and there are many lofty mountains, with which the islands of Teneriffe cannot be compared. They are all most beautiful, of a thousand different shapes, accessible, and covered with trees of a thousand kinds, of such great height that they seem to reach the skies. I am told that the trees never lose their foliage, and I can well understand it, for I observed that they were as green and luxuriant as in Spain in the month of May. Some were in bloom, others bearing fruit, and others otherwise, according to their nature. The nightingale was singing, as well as other little birds of a thousand different kinds, and that in November, the month in which I was roaming amongst them. There are palm trees of six or eight kinds, wonderful in their beautiful variety; but this is the case with all other trees and fruits and grasses. It contains extraordinary pine groves and very extensive plains. There is also honey and a great variety of birds, and many different kinds of fruits. In the interior there are many mines of metals, and a population innumerable."

The first attempt to colonize Cuba was made by Diego Columbus (son of the discoverer) and Diego Velasquez. They made their first

settlement at Boracoa, which became the capital. In 1522 the capital was moved to Santiago de Cuba and in 1589 to Havana.

In 1538 a French privateer bombarded Havana and reduced the city to ashes, which led the Governor General, Fernando de Soto, to erect the Castillo de la Fuerza (strong fortress), which still stands. When De Soto left Cuba for Florida he placed the government in the hands of Dona Isabel de Boabdillo.

In 1547 Don Antonio de Chavez became Governor, and inaugurated many improvements. Among them he gave the city of Havana a water supply system for the first time in its history.

The removal of the capital from Santiago to Havana was due largely to the fact that Gonzales Perez de Angulo, who was appointed Governor General of the island in 1549, took up his residence in Havana instead of Santiago, and this precedent being followed by some of his successors the change was naturally brought about.

For a year Cuba was British property. This was from July, 1762, to July, 1763. With a fleet of 37 ships under Admiral Pococke, and 150 transports with 10,000 men under Lord Albemarle, reinforced by 4,000 regulars from New York, the city was captured after a stubborn defense in which heat and disease fought on the side of the Spaniards. Five thousand soldiers and 3,000 sailors were ill at one time. By the terms of the treaty of peace the island was restored to Spain on July 7, 1763.

The frequent insurrections in the islands were no doubt aided by filibustering expeditions from the United States, which the government was unable to suppress. This caused constant irritation between the two governments, and in 1873 almost led to war.

On October 31 of that year, the Virginius, an American ship, was captured near Jamaica by the Spanish Steamer Tornado. She was apprehended as a filibusterer, and Captain Frye and fifty-two of the crew were stood against a wall and shot. A British ship of war, the Niobe, appeared opportunely upon the scene and prevented the massacre of the remaining 130 of the crew.

Although the affair was settled through the channels of diplomacy, a bitter sentiment was created against Spain, which continued with more or less intensity until it found vent in the recent hostilities.

It is a peculiar coincidence that the invasion of Cuba and place of ultimate surrender of the islands to Americans should have been at the exact place where the Virginius' crew was massacred—Santiago.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

BULL FIGHTING IN SPAIN.

BRUTAL EXHIBITION CHARACTERISTIC OF SPANISH CRUELTY—ATTEMPTS TO RAISE MONEY TO CONDUCT THE WAR THROUGH THIS NATIONAL SPORT—COMPLETE DESCRIPTION OF A BULL FIGHT.

ULL fighting is a form of entertainment that would seem to have little to do with the subject of war, and yet bull fights were a feature of the late war between the United States and Spain, and probably the only war of which they properly constitute a part of its history.

Spain was practically a bankrupt nation at the beginning of the war, and as hostilities progressed she was put to desperate straits to raise money to carry on the combat. The people were taxed to their utmost limit. So it was useless to expect any considerable revenue from increased taxation.

Then some patriotic Spaniard suggested that special bull fights be given and the proceeds be turned over to the government to prosecute the war with the United States. Accordingly several such events were held and netted a considerable sum.

Madrid, the Spanish capital, presents no gayer scene than on the occasion of a bull fight. The exhibitions are held in an immense circular arena, and are witnessed by all classes, from the Queen Regent to the beggar upon the street corner. Royalty, the nobility, wealth and fashion have their private boxes just as rich Americans do at the theater, while the rabble sits upon tiers of seats arranged one above the other as they are at a circus. The arena, or bull ring, is enclosed by a fence about six feet high, leaving a sort of alley-way between it and a yet higher fence in front of the space reserved for spectators. It often happens that the bull in his furious charges after his tormentor leaps the first fence, in which case he can be driven back into the ring through any one of the numerous gates built therein. The fence more often is used by the torero, who, when hard pressed, leaps over it for safety.

At any bull fight one may see all the principal officials, from Cabinet Ministers down to officers of the municipality and men prominent in every walk of life. But the women make the fairest and gayest picture, for they are arrayed in their best finery of many colors, and the excitement lends additional vivacity to their conduct.

The Alguazils, or police officers, enter and clear the ring of fruit-venders and stragglers. A trumpet is blown, and the vast audience which has gathered in groups chatting and displaying impatience for the exhibition to begin, becomes seated. Opposite the royal box a door flies open and the procession of toreros enter. In the lead march the espadas or matadores, the men who kill the bull after he has been goaded to frenzy. They are the real bull fighters and the others are their assistants.

The profession of matador is an enviable one from a Spanish standpoint, for the successful matador wins both fame and fortune. All the ladies are supposed to be in love with him, and most of them really are, while his profits from a single fight vary from $10,000 to $20,000. His fame spreads throughout Spain, and he is the object of every courtesy and attention. Many Spanish matadores have accumulated immense fortunes. Behind the matadores march the banderilleros. These are armed with steel darts tipped with a barb. The darts are gaily decorated with bits of ribbon, colored paper and tinsel. When the dart pierces the flesh of the bull the barb on the point prevents it from falling or being pulled out, and with every motion of the animal it tears the flesh and makes an aggravating wound. If the barb fails to exasperate the animal sufficiently a fulminating material is sometimes attached to the point. This explodes when it strikes the bull and burns him to the quick.

The capadores come next, each with a large capa (cape or cloak) These are used to blind the bull, thus assisting the banderillero to escape after he has thrown his darts.

Last of all are the picadores. They are mounted lancers, and the horses they ride are blindfolded so that they may not be terrorized by the bull and may be the better controlled when the picador endeavors to pierce the animal with his lance. The breeches they wear are lined with thin strips of iron to protect the legs of the rider against the horns of the bull should he succeed in goring the horse, which he does as often as not.

Directly behind the espadas or matadores march their servants, for each of these celebrities has his own valet who attends him in the ring as well as out of it. The servants carry their master's cloaks, in which the bull fighter wraps himself until it comes his turn to despatch the bull.

The procession marches across the arena and halts before the royal box. In the adjoining box sits the Alcalde, the master of ceremonies, and to him a request is made for the key with which to unlock the cells containing the bellowing bulls already goaded to anger by being tormented by attendants. The Alcalde tosses down the key and the official who has caught it proceeds to the door of one of the cells and throws it wide open.

There is a grand flourish of trumpets and the angry bull comes bounding into the arena, his eyes red with anger and his head shaking with wrath. He stops and glares at the toreros and paws the ground, throwing the tan bark high in the air. It is a peculiarity of these bulls that they either select the horsemen as the special objects of their hatred and pursue them throughout the fight, or else they will ignore the horsemen entirely and concentrate all their maddened energy upon the banderilleros.

In a recent fight graphically described it happened that the bull charged upon a picador. The picador plunged his lance into the animal's shoulders, but was unable to hold him at bay. The bull buried his horns in the horse's barrel and disemboweled him, bringing horse and rider to the ground. The capadores quickly threw their cloaks over the bull's head and tantalized him until he was completely disconcerted, and charged aimlessly about the ring. Then came the most disgusting and brutal part of the exhibition. The horse had not been killed, although mortally wounded. The wound was plugged up and another picador put upon his back.

Sometimes it happens that the horses, scenting the bulls, although they cannot see them, will be so terror-stricken that they will rear upon their hind legs. This is the bull's opportunity, and he is quick to take advantage of it. Plunging his horns into the horse he lifts him clear from the ground, carries him a moment and tosses him to the earth—dead, or too badly crippled to rise. Sometimes as many as a dozen horses are slain in an encounter with one bull.

When the picadores have finished their part of the work, the banderilleros engage the animal. Theirs is the most skillful part of the work of torturing the poor beast. The dart must be thrown to strike on the upper side of the bull's neck. In order to do this the banderillero must approach the bull directly from the front; in fact,he must almost place his arm between the bull's horns in order to strike in the proper place. It is the most dangerous part of the work and requires great courage and agility. It sometimes happens that a banderillero is caught upon the horns of the animal and tossed into the air, but such fatalities are rare. When they do happen, however, the spectators shout and howl their approval.

When the banderillero has completed his work the espada or matador comes forward to put the fatal finishing touches upon the affair. He has been an interested spectator of all that has passed and has had an opportunity to estimate the courage and intelligence of the animal he is to despatch.

Gracefully removing his cloak he hands it to his valet and then approaches the royal box. Removing his cap, he bows and asks permission to slay the bull. This is granted, and he then approaches the enraged animal for the final scene in the gory spectacle. In one hand he carries a little flag attached to a stick, called a muleta. This he uses to divert the attention of the bull. In the other he carries his two-edged sword. As man and beast confront each other, one is reminded of the American prize fight, where the antagonists study each other, looking for a weak point to attack.

The espada waves his muleta in front of the bull's eyes and the animal charges straight upon him. It seems as if there were no escape, but he steps nimbly aside and smiles at the spectators, who applaud his agility. Again and again this is repeated, but presently the sought-for opportunity arrives, and as the bull passes him the espada buries his sword to the hilt in the animal's neck at the base of the skull, and the poor beast, covered with blood and foam, sinks down and expires.

A great shout goes up and the espada smilingly bows his acknowledgment of the spectators' approval.

The closing scene of the spectacle is given when a team of gaily caparisoned mules is brought into the arena, and the bull is dragged out at a gallop.

CHAPTER XXXV.

BEAUTIFUL PORTO RICO.

THE HEALTHIEST AND MOST ATTRACTIVE OF UNCLE SAM'S NEW POSSESSIONS—IMPORTANT FACTS IN ITS HISTORY, WITH A DESCRIPTION OF ITS WONDERFUL RESOURCES.

PORTO RICO, the most beautiful island of the Antilles, which was ceded to the United States by the Spanish-American treaty at Paris, 1898, is situated at the entrance to the Gulf of Mexico, east of Haiti, from which it is separated by the Mona Passage. Haiti lies between it and Cuba. Porto Rico is 95 miles long and 35 broad, with an area of about 3,600 square miles, or nearly three-fourths the size of the State of Connecticut (4,990 square miles), and considerably larger than that of the States of Delaware and Rhode Island, which aggregate 3,300 square miles. The island has always been noted for its mineral and agricultural wealth; hence the Spanish name, which, in English, means "rich harbor."

Porto Rico, or Puerto Rico (the Spanish name), was discovered by Columbus on his second voyage, November 16, 1493. The discoverer first sighted land near Cape San Juan and for three days sailed along the northern coast, landing at Aguadilla. The richness and fertility of the island caused him to name it Puerto Rico or "rich port." He saw little or nothing of the natives, who fled at his approach, believing that they were about to be attacked.

The actual conquest of the island was made in 1510, two years after his first visit, by Juan Ponce De Leon, Governor of the Island of Haiti, then known as Hispaniola. He won the confidence of the natives and landed an expedition to subjugate them. The Spanish conquest of Porto Rico was marked by the bloodshed and cruelty that has characterized Spanish conquest in all parts of the Western world. Natives were slaughtered, or condemned to slavery. The colonization

of Porto Rico by Spaniards then followed, and to-day there is scarcely a trace of aboriginal blood in the islands.

The aboriginal population numbered about 600,000; they were copper-colored, though somewhat darker than the Indians of the North American continent. The aborigines called the island Boringuen and themselves Boringuenans.

Physically, Porto Rico is a continuation of the emerged lands of Haiti. It is very mountainous, the altitudes ranging from 1,500 to 3,600 feet, and among the rocks coralligenous limestones predominate. All lands exposed to the northeast trade winds have abundant rains. The mean temperature at the city of San Juan is 80.7 degrees F. In January and February it is 76.5 degrees, and in July and August, 83.2 degrees. The island is known as the most healthful of the Antilles. There are no reptiles and no wild animals, except rats, which are numerous. The hills are covered with tropical forests and the lands are very productive. The streams are numerous and some of them are navigable to the foothills.

AGRICULTURAL AND MINERAL RESOURCES.

The most flourishing plantations of Porto Rico are situated on the littoral plains and in the valleys of rivers which, says Longman's Gazetteer, are "intensely cultivated." The principal products are sugar, molasses, coffee, tobacco; then maize, rice, cotton, tobacco, hides, dyewoods, timber, and rice. Coffee is produced to the extent of over 16,000 tons per annum, and the annual sugar production averages 67,000 tons.

The forests abound in mahogany, cedar, ebony, dyewoods, and a great variety of medicinal and industrial plants. All kinds of tropical fruits are found. An average of 190,000,000 bananas, 6,500,000 oranges, 2,500,000 cocoanuts, and 7,000,000 pounds of tobacco is produced annually.

Sugar cane is cultivated on 61,000 acres, the districts in which it is produced on the largest scale being Ponce, 6,500 acres; Juan Diaz, 4,000 acres; Vieques, 3,000; Arecibo, 3,000; San German, 2,500. Coffee is cultivated on about 122,000 acres, two-thirds of the whole being in the following districts: Utuado, Las Marias, Adjuntas, Maricao, Ponce, Lares, Mayaguez, Yauco, San Sebastian, Ciales, Barros, and Juan Diaz.

Ponce, Mayaguez, and Arecibo are the provinces which produce more largely than any others in the island. It is estimated that every acre of coffee plantations averages in production 330 pounds. Tobacco is cultivated on over 2,000 acres, and over 1,100,000 acres are devoted to pastures. As these figures change from year to year, they can be given only approximately. The total quantity of "declared lands" in 1894 amounted to 3,171 square miles, and as the total extent of the Island of Porto Rico is some 3,668 square miles, the difference between the rural property and the total area is 497 square miles, which are taken up by the towns, roads, rivers, bays, etc.

The sugar industry was the most important, but, owing to the excessive land tax assessed by the Spanish officials and the growing use of beet sugar, it suffered a marked decline. Then, too, the mills used are equipped with machinery of an obsolete character. All the natural conditions—soil, climate, and labor—are favorable to the culture of this product.

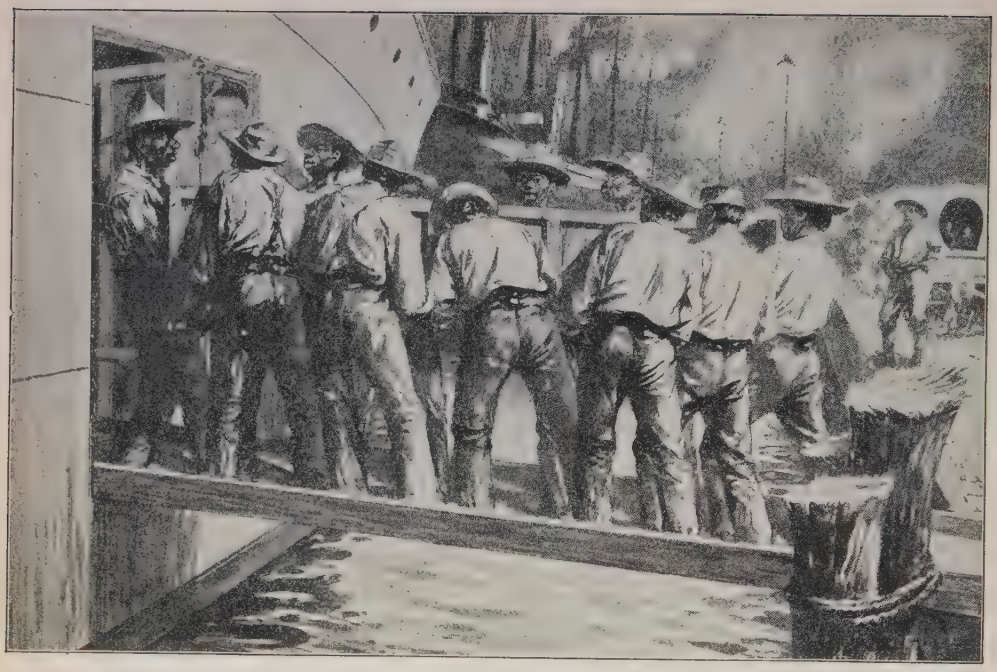
Coffee is also a staple product. The greater part of it was formerly shipped to New York, where it commanded a good price. Much of the coffee produced is grown by planters of small capital, who make use of the wild and waste lands of the hillsides to grow the berry. They prefer to cultivate coffee on account of the ease with which it can be produced, requiring but little expenditure as compared with the manufacture of sugar and molasses.

Tobacco, which ranks second in quality to that of Cuba, can be produced in great quantities, but the natives are generally careless in guarding against destructive insects and in drying and sorting the leaves. A considerable quantity, both in the form of leaf and manufactured cigars, is exported each year to the United States, England, France, Cuba and Spain. Three qualities are produced: "Capa," which is the leaf of first quality, used for wrappers; "tripa," also a wrapper of medium grade; and "beliche," or ordinary leaf. Tobacco culture is capable of enormous development under favorable circumstances.

A small quantity of cocoa is produced each year. Maize is grown on considerable areas only at times when high prices promise to prevail. Some cotton is also produced. Grass grows luxuriantly and affords pasturage for numerous herds of cattle, nearly all of which are exported. The hides of those consumed on the island are sent to other countries.

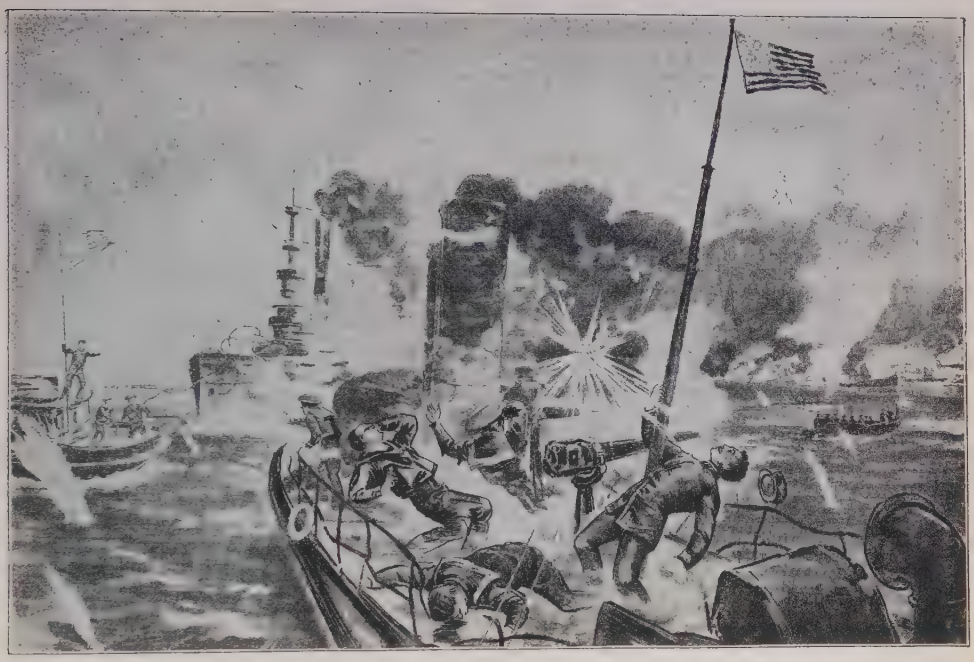
OUR ARMY AT TAMPA. A COMPANY MESS AT DINNER.

EMBARKATION OF MULES AT TAMPA.



LOADING TRANSPORT SHIPS AT TAMPA WITH ARMY SUPPLIES.

PRESIDENT McKINLEY AND GENERAL MILES REVIEWING TROOPS.



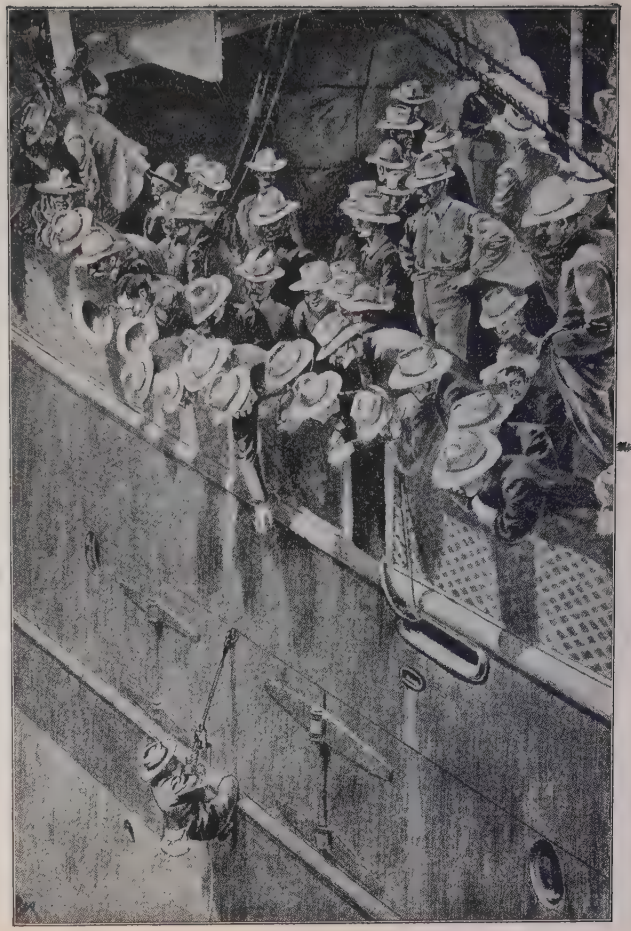
DEATH OF ENSIGN BAGLEY.

TRANSPORTS CONVEYING TROOPS TO CUBA.

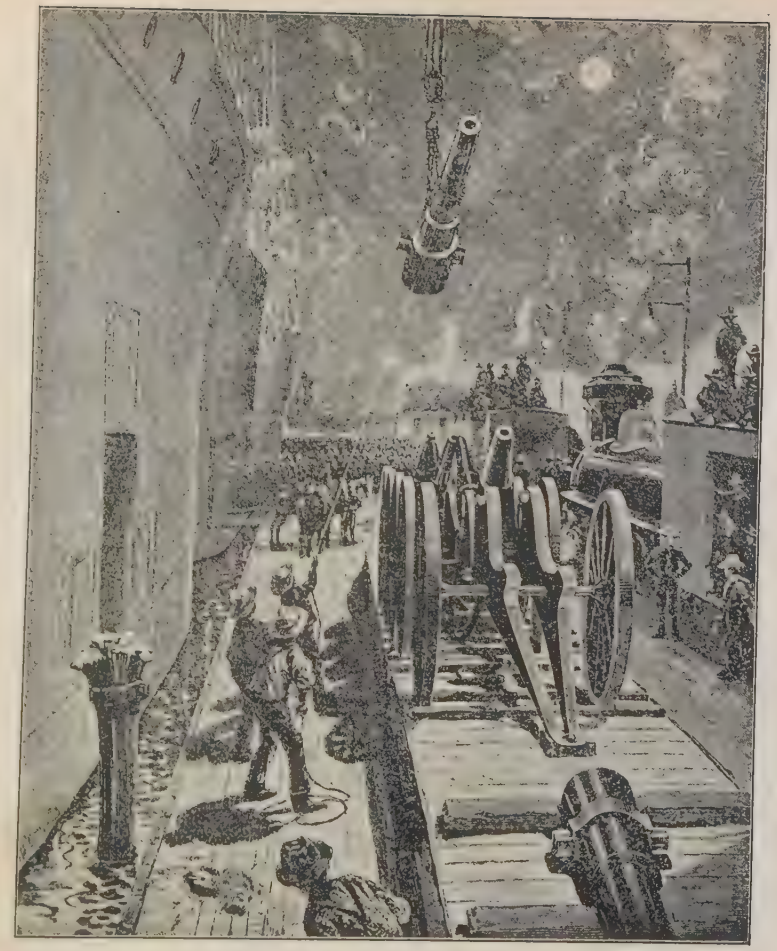
THE OLYMPIA LEADING FIGHTING LINE AT THE BATTLE OF MANILA.

SPANISH SHIP REINA CHRISTINA AT BATTLE OF MANILA.

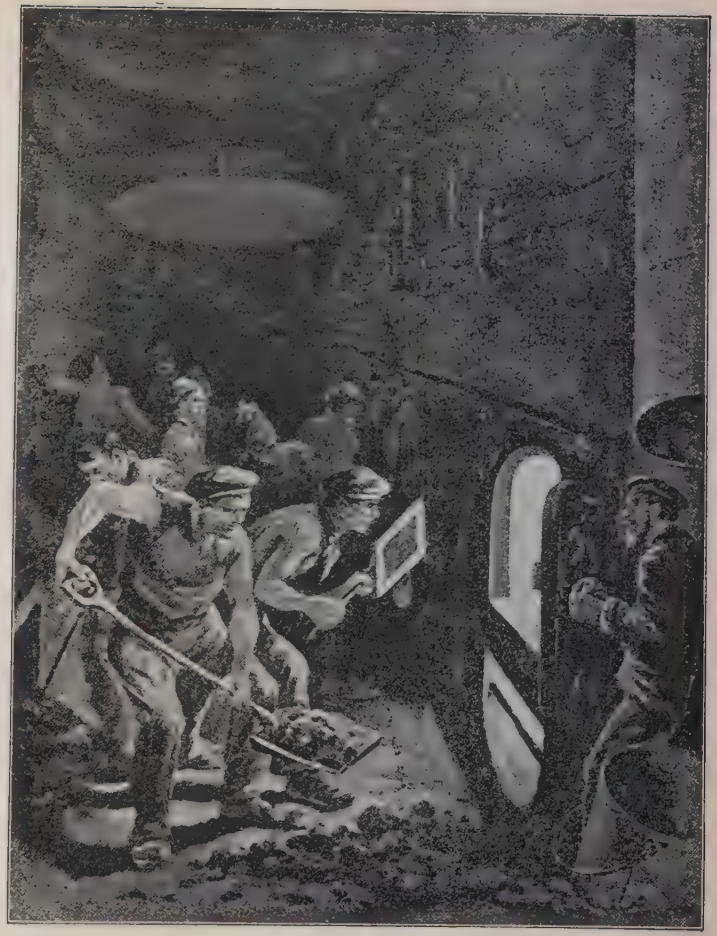
OFF FOR THE WAR.



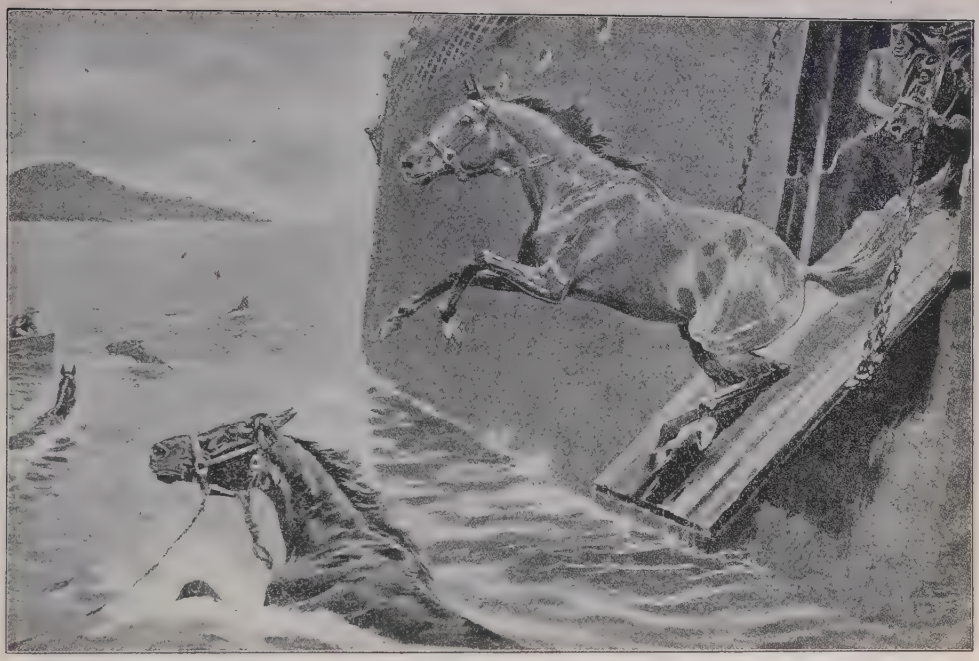
THE LAST ONE TO GET ON BOARD.



LOADING ARTILLERY ON SHIPS AT TAMPA.



HEROES IN THE HOLD.



LANDING HORSES FROM TRANSPORT BOATS OFF SIBONEY.

LANDING OF THE AMERICAN TROOPS AT CIENFUEGOS, CUBA.

CHARGE OF TENTH CAVALRY (COLORED) AT SAN JUAN.

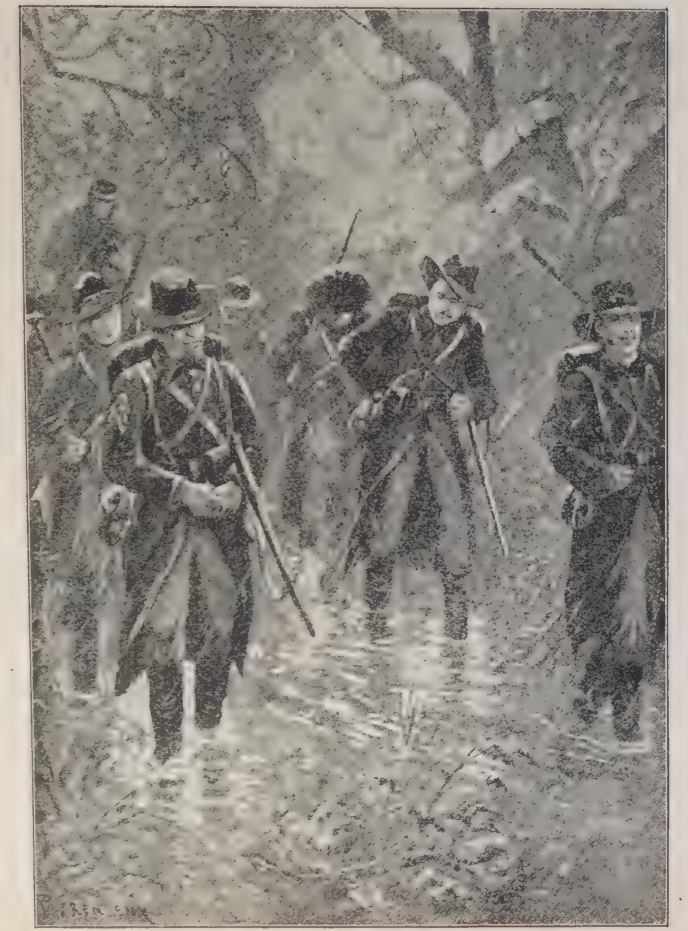
THE SPANISH DEFENSE OF SAN JUAN HILL.

AMERICAN TROOPS CARRYING SPANISH EARTHWORKS AT EL CANEY.

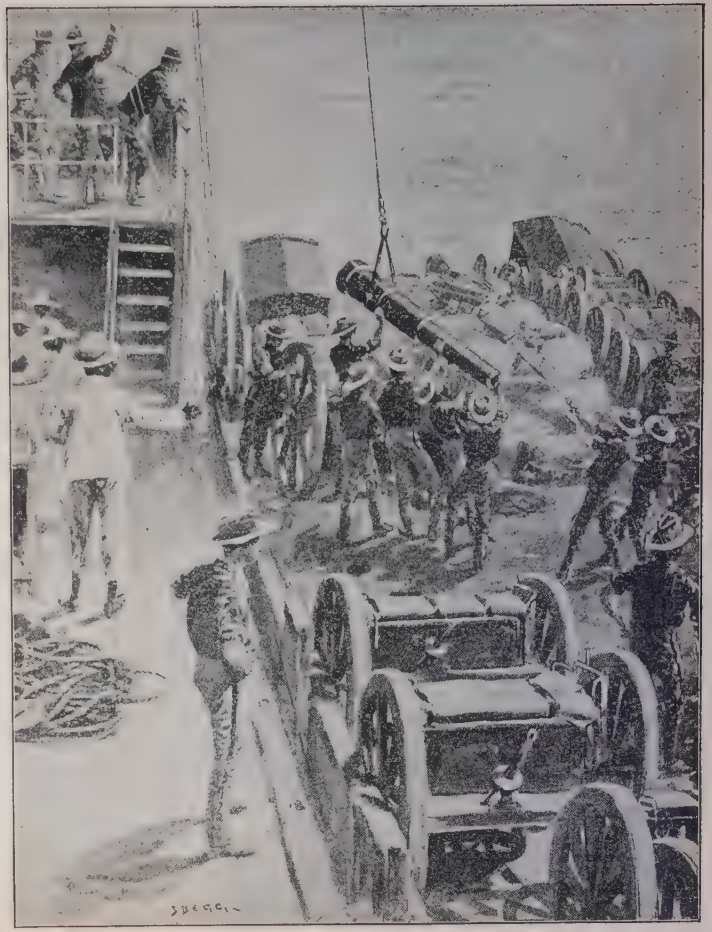
AMERICAN ASSAULT ON BLOCKHOUSE AND ENTRENCHMENTS NEAR EL CANEY.

STORMING OF SAN JUAN HILL.

AMERICAN ADVANCE LINE BEFORE SANTIAGO.

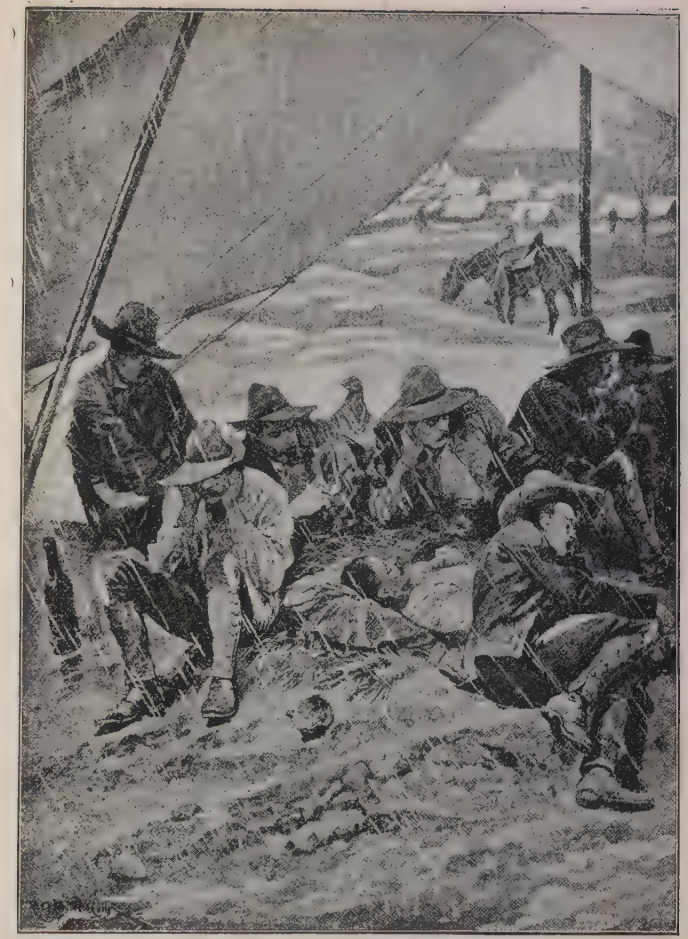


TROOPS IN CUBA DURING RAINY SEASON.



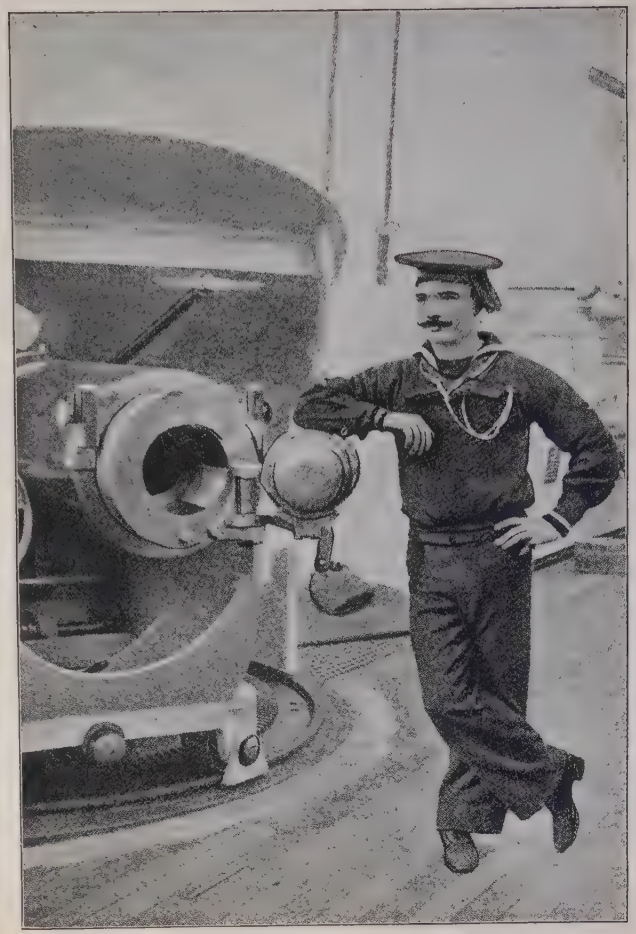
SHIPPING SIEGE GUNS AT TAMPA FOR CUBA.

SPANISH SOLDIER TAKING OBSERVATIONS.

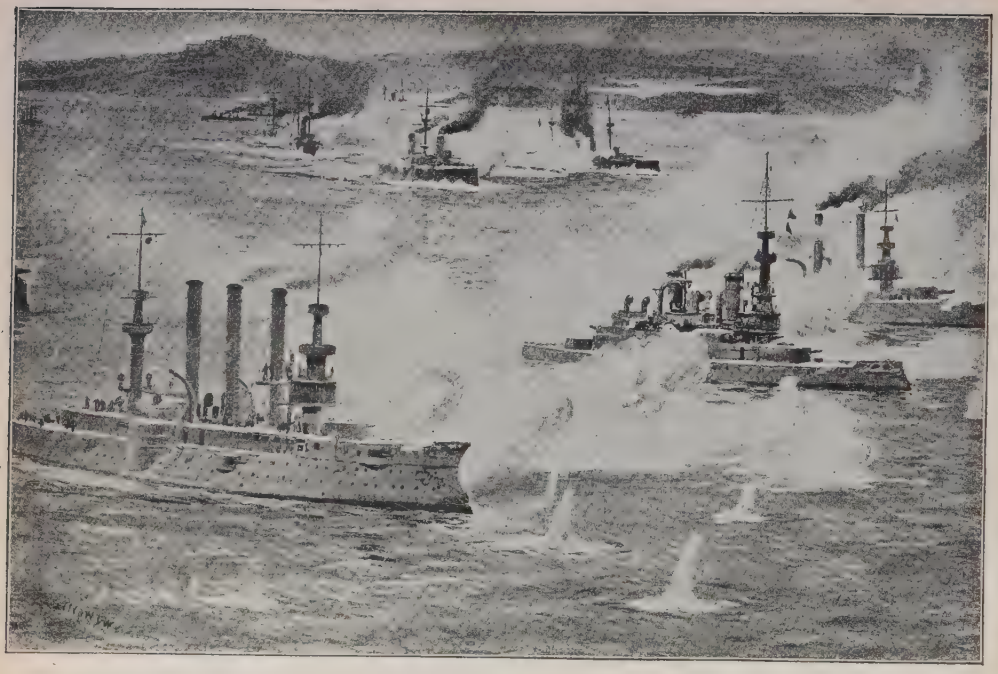


SOLDIERS IN CUBA DURING TROPICAL RAIN.

HOLE MADE BY SPANISH SHOT IN BATTLESHIP TEXAS.



A YANKEE SAILOR AND A YANKEE GUN.



CERVERA'S SQUADRON COMING OUT OF SANTIAGO HARBOR.

THE "BROOKLYN" CHASING THE "CRISTOBAL COLON" OFF SANTIAGO.

AUXILIARY CRUISER ST. PAUL.

SHELLS FROM SAMPSON'S SQUADRON BURSTING IN STREETS OF SANTIAGO.

SPANISH FLEET UNDER COMMAND OF ADMIRAL CERVERA.

THE HARBOR OF SANTIAGO DE CUBA.

The mineral resources are not very extensive. Gold is found in limited quantities. Some copper, lead, iron and coal are obtained. Lignite and yellow amber are found at Utuado and Moca. There are undeveloped resources of marble, limestone, and other building stone. The salt works at Guanica, Salinas, and Cape Rojo are under governmental control. Hot springs and mineral waters are found at Coamo, Juan Diaz, San Sebastian, San Lorenzo, and Ponce. The former is the most noted.

There is no public land in the Island of Porto Rico; therefore colonization must be undertaken there, as in Cuba, by private enterprise. The population of Porto Rico is very dense, and all the land has been taken. The royal ordinance of colonization and the "Ley de Extranjeria" (statute on aliens) do not grant concessions of land or offer any material inducement to immigration. Cuba and Porto Rico have not, therefore, any law tending to encourage foreign immigration, as is the case in most of the American countries; and, although foreigners are welcomed and their rights protected by law, no especial privileges are granted for settlement in those islands. The mining law in force in Porto Rico is the same as that of Cuba. After the mineral is found, titles may be obtained by applying to the civil government where the mine is located. In case the mine is situated on private land, forcible expropriation may be obtained, the corresponding indemnity having been paid. But little manufacturing was carried on under Spanish rule.

The island is divided into seven districts, and under Spanish sovereignty, its affairs were administered by a Captain-General, who was the civil as well as the military executive, appointed by the Crown, with representation in the Spanish Cortes or Parliament. In 1897, through a royal decree, the island was granted autonomous government, with a colonial parliament, the executive power being vested in a Governor-General, with department secretaries. Under the agreement with Spain for the conclusion of peace, Porto Rico was ceded to the United States, and was governed by the military commanders under the instructions of the United States War Department.

CITIES, TOWNS AND HARBORS.

Harbors are numerous along the coast of Porto Rico, but they are mostly unprotected from the trade winds on the northern side or filled

with sand on the western side. Nearly the whole of the north coast is lined with navigable lagoons, some of which are nearly ten miles in length. Of the 21 rivers, some are quite small, but there are several each of which is navigable for 5 or 6 miles from its mouth. A number of the bays and creeks are deep enough for vessels of considerable burden, but the north coast is subject to tremendous ground seas, which beat against the cliffs with great violence. The exporting ports are Mayaguez (San German) and Aguadilla on the west, and Guanica, Guayanilla and Puerto Ponce on the south. The eastern part of the island is, commercially, less important. The chief cities and towns are as follows:

San Juan, the capital of the island, is situated on a long and narrow island, separated from the main island at one end by a shallow arm of the sea, over which is a bridge connecting it with the mainland, which runs out at this point in a long sand spit, some nine miles in length, apparently to meet the smaller island; at the other end, the island ends in a rugged bluff or promontory, some hundred feet high and three-fourths of a mile distant from the main island. This promontory is crowned by Morro Castle, the principal fortification of the town. After rounding the bluff, one finds a broad and beautiful bay, landlocked and with a good depth of water, which is being increased by dredging. It is by far the best harbor in Porto Rico, and probably as good a one as can be found in the West Indies.

San Juan is a perfect specimen of a walled town, with portcullis, moat, gates and battlements. Built over two hundred and fifty years ago, it is still in good condition and repair. The walls are picturesque and represent a stupendous work and cost in themselves. Inside the walls, the city is laid off in regular squares, six parallel streets running in the direction of the length of the island and seven at right angles. There is no running water in the town. The entire population depends upon rain water, caught upon the flat roofs of the building and conducted to the cistern, which occupies the greater part of the inner courtyard that is an essential part of Spanish houses the world over, but that here, on account of the crowded conditions, is very small. There is no sewerage, except for surface water and sinks, while vaults are in every house and occupy whatever remaining space there may be in the patios not taken up by the cisterns. The risk of contaminating the water is very great, and in dry seasons the supply is entirely ex-

hausted. Epidemics are frequent, and the town is alive with vermin, fleas, cockroaches, mosquitoes and dogs. The streets are wider than in the older part of Havana, and will admit two carriages abreast. The sidewalks are narrow, and in places will accommodate but one person. The pavements are of a composition manufactured in England from slag, pleasant and even, and durable when no heavy strain is brought to bear upon them, but easily broken and unfit for heavy traffic. The streets are swept once a day by hand and are kept very clean. With proper sanitary conditions, the town would doubtless be healthful. Population within the walls, about 20,000.

Besides the town within the walls, there are small portions just outside, called the Marina and Porta de Tierra, containing 2,000 or 3,000 inhabitants each. There are also two suburbs—one, San Turce, approached by the only road leading out of the city, and the other, Cataño, across the bay, reached by ferry. The Marina and the two suburbs are situated on sandy points or spits, and the latter are surrounded by mangrove swamps. The entire population of the city and suburbs, according to the census of 1887, was 27,000. It is now estimated at 30,000. One-half of the population consists of negroes and mixed races. There is but little manufacturing, and that is of small importance.

The city of Ponce is situated on the south coast of the island, on a plain about two miles from the seaboard and seventy miles from San Juan. It is regularly built—the central part almost exclusively of brick houses and the suburbs of wood. It is the residence of the military commander and the seat of an official chamber of commerce. There is an appellate criminal court, besides other courts; two churches—one Protestant, said to be the only one in the Spanish West Indies—two hospitals besides the military hospitals, a home of refuge for the old and poor, a perfectly equipped fire department, a bank, a theater, three first-class hotels and gas works. The city has an ice machine, and there are 115 vehicles for public conveyance. The inhabitants, who number about 15,000, are principally occupied in mercantile pursuits; but carpenters, bricklayers, joiners, tailors, shoemakers and barbers find good employment. The department of Ponce counts about 40,000 inhabitants. The chief occupations of the people are the cultivation of sugar, cocoa, tobacco, and oranges, and the breeding of cattle. Commercially, Ponce is the second city of importance on the island.

A fine road leads to the port (Playa), where all the import and export trade is transacted. Playa has about 5,000 inhabitants, and here are situated the custom-house, the office of the captain of the port, and all the consular offices. The port is spacious and will hold vessels of 25 feet draft. The climate, on account of the sea breezes during the day and land breezes at night, is not oppressive, though warm; and as water for all purposes, including the fire department, is amply supplied by an aqueduct, it may be said that the city of Ponce is perhaps the healthiest place in the whole island.

Mayaguez, the third city in importance of the island, is situated in the west part, 102 miles from San Juan, facing what is generally known as the "Mona Channel." Of industries, there is little to be said, except that there are three manufactories of chocolate, which is for local consumption. Sugar, coffee, oranges, pineapples, and cocoanuts are exported largely, all except coffee principally to the United States. Of sugar, the muscovado goes to the United States and the centrifugal to Spain. Mayaguez is the second port for coffee, the average annual export being 170,000 hundredweight. The quality is of the best, ranging in price with Java and other first-rate brands. The lower grades are sent to Cuba. About 50,000 bags of flour are imported into this port every year from the United States, out of the 180,000 bags that are consumed in the whole island. The population is nearly 20,000, the majority white. The climate is excellent, the temperature never exceeding 90 degrees F. The city is connected by tram with the neighboring town of Aguadilla, and a railroad connects it with Lares, one of the large interior towns.

The city of Aguadilla, which is the principal town and the port of Aguadilla district, in the northwest portion of the island, has 5,000 inhabitants. It is 81 miles distant from San Juan. Industries in the vicinity consist of the cultivation of sugar cane, coffee, tobacco and cocoanuts and the distillation of rum from molasses. In the town are three establishments for preparing coffee for exportation. The climate is hot, but healthy. There is hardly ever yellow fever.

The town of Arecibo, from 6,000 to 7,000 inhabitants, is situated on the north coast of Porto Rico, facing the Atlantic Ocean, and some 50 miles distant by rail from San Juan. It is similar to all Spanish towns, with a plaza, surrounded by the church and other public buildings, in the center, and streets running from it in right angles, form-

ing regular squares. The buildings are constructed of wood and brick. The harbor is poor, being nothing more than an open roadstead exposed to the full force of the ocean, in which vessels during northerly winds can hardly lie in safety. Close in shore, on one side, dangerous reefs stretch, a constant menace to vessels if the anchor does not hold. Into this harbor empties a narrow and shallow stream called the Rio Grande de Arecibo. Goods are conveyed on this river to and from the town in flat-bottomed boats, with the aid of long poles and by dint of much pushing and patience. At the bar of the river everything is again transferred into lighters, and thence to vessels. It is a tedious and expensive process. However, Arecibo is quite an important port, and has tributary to it a large district of some 30,000 inhabitants. The want of good roads in the island makes such a place as Arecibo far more important that it would naturally be.

The town of Fajardo, on the east coast of the island, 36 miles from San Juan, has a population of 8,779. The port is handsome, with a third-class light-house at the entrance at the point called Cabezas de San Juan, and a custom-house open to universal commerce. The town is about a mile and a quarter from the bay. The only important industry of the district is the manufacture of muscovado sugar, to which most of the planters devote themselves. Shooks, hickory hoops, pine boards, and provisions come from the United States in considerable quantities. Sugar and molasses are exported, and occasionally tortoise shell. The climate is temperate and healthy.

Naguabo (on the east side) is a small town of only about 2,000 inhabitants, and in the harbor there is another smaller place called Playa de Naguabo, or Ucares, with about 1,500. The capital of the department, Humacao, is 9 miles from Naguabo and has 4,000 inhabitants, the district comprising more than 15,000.

Arroyo, in the district of Guayama (southeast portion), is a small seaport of about 1,200 inhabitants. The annual exports to the United States average 7,000 to 10,000 heads of sugar, 2,000 to 5,000 casks of molasses, and 50 to 150 casks and barrels of bay rum.

COMMERCE OF PORTO RICO.

The Estadistica General del Comercio Exterior, Porto Rico, 1897, gives the following figures (the latest published) in regard to the trade of the island in 1895:

IMPORTS OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.

Articles.	Value.*	Articles.	Value.*
Coal	$119,403	Flour	$982,222
Iron	224,206	Vegetables	192,918
Soap	238,525	Olive oil	327,801
Meat and lard	1,223,104	Wine	305,656
Jerked beef	133,616	Cheese	324,137
Fish	1,591,418	Other provisions	171,322
Rice	2,180,004	Tobacco (manufactured)	663,464

* United States currency.

EXPORTS OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.

Articles.	Value.*	Articles.	Value.*
Coffee	$8,789,788	Sugar	$3,747,891
Tobacco	646,556	Honey	517,746

* United States currency.

The value of the total imports was 16,155,056, against $18,316,971 for the preceding year. The exports were valued at $14,629,494, against $16,015,665 in 1894. The principal increases in imports, as compared with the preceding year, were in meats, fish, olive oil, and tobacco. Decreases were noted in flour, vegetables and wine. The exportation of coffee diminished, and that of sugar and honey increased.

The trade of the United States with Porto Rico during the last seven years, as given by the United States Treasury figures, was:

Description.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894	1895.	1896.	1897.
Imports:							
Free	$1,856,955	$3,236,337	$3,994,673	$3,126,895	$375,864	$48,608	$101,711
Dutiable	1,307,155	11,670	13,950	8,739	1,131,148	2,248,045	2,079,313
Total	$3,164,110	$3,248,007	$4,008,623	$3,135,634	$1,506,512	$2,296,653	$2,181,024
Exports:							
Domestic	$2,112,334	$2,808,631	$2,502,788	$2,705,646	$1,820,203	$2,080,400	$1,964,850
Foreign	42,900	47,372	7,819	14,862	13,341	21,694	24,038
Total	$2,155,234	$2,856,003	$2,510,607	$2,720,508	$1,833,544	$2,102,094	$1,988,888

The commerce of Spain with Porto Rico from 1891 to 1896 was:

Description	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.
Imports from Porto Rico.	$3,261,650	$4,428,891	$4,108,654	$4,164,964	$5,824,694	$5,423,760
Exports to Porto Rico	3,305,243	3,929,186	4,653,023	5,535,027	8,572,549	7,328,880

The trade of Porto Rico with other countries of importance in 1895 (according to the Estadistica General del Comercio Exterior) was:

Country.	Imports.	Exports.
Cuba	$808,283	$3,610,936
England	1,765,574	1,144,555
France	251,984	1,376,087
Germany	1,368,595	1,181,396
Italy	19,619	589,045
Holland	325,301	3,246
Denmark	26,565	236,418
British West Indies	1,709,117	521,649
Danish West Indies	600	40,434
French West Indies	55	62,927

The United States, by the terms of the Spanish cession, also acquires a number of smaller islands belonging geographically to Porto Rico.

The Island of Vieque, or Crab Island, is the largest of these and is situated 13 miles east of Porto Rico, is 21 miles long and 6 miles wide. Its land is very fertile and adapted to the cultivation of almost all the fruits and vegetables that grow in the West Indies. Cattle are raised and sugar cultivated.

It has a population of some 6,000. The town of Isabel Segunda is on the north and the port is unsafe in times of northerly wind, like all the anchorages on that side; the few ports on the south are better, the best being Punta Arenas. Not long ago there were two importing and exporting houses on the island of Vieque, but on account of the long period of drought and the high duties on foreign imported goods, trade has decreased to local consumption only. All supplies are brought from San Juan, the majority being of American origin.

The other islands are Culebra, eight miles north of Vieques, and Polominos, on the east, and Cafa de Muerto, Mona and Monita on the south. Culebra is eight miles long by three and a half miles wide, and has a beautiful harbor. Mona is of volcanic origin and is inhabited by fishermen. Wild cattle, goats and swine are to be found there.

The population of Porto Rico is 814,000, of which 300,000 are negroes, 150,000 natives of Spain, and 15,000 French, German, English and Italians. The native population is about two-thirds whites, descendants of Spaniards, and one-third negroes, mixed blood and half-caste.

They made two attempts to gain their independence from Spain,

first in 1820 and again in 1868. The revolutionary spirit was again abroad during the last Cuban insurrection, but the revolt did not get beyond the secret stages.

Slavery was abolished in Porto Rico in 1873 and the day is observed by a national celebration.

The Porto Ricans are a polite, mild-mannered, affable people, but are of frail constitutions. They are among the most desirable of the peoples added to the population of the United States by the late war, and are rapidly adopting American manners and customs.

Knocking at the door.—Chicago Tribune.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

STORY OF THE ANNEXATION OF THE CROSS ROADS OF THE PACIFIC—THEIR TOPOGRAPHY, RESOURCES AND COMMERCIAL ACTIVITY.

THE annexation of the Hawaiian Islands was a war measure. At the moment of Admiral Dewey's victory in Manila Bay, the United States became an active power in the Pacific, and every consideration, naval and commercial, made it desirable that the American flag should float over this fertile group. Figuratively speaking, Hawaii was sitting on Uncle Sam's doorstep waiting to come in. The islands had offered themselves to the United States Government. It was not necessary to wage a war of conquest or open peaceful negotiations. All that was necessary was to pass a resolution of annexation.

Accordingly, on June 15th, the Newlands annexation resolution was passed by the House of Representatives by a vote of 209 to 91. The Senate passed the same resolution by a vote of 42 to 21, and President McKinley approved it July 7, 1898. The resolution is as follows:

[PUBLIC RESOLUTION—NO. 51.]

Joint resolution to provide for annexing the Hawaiian Islands to the United States.

Whereas, The Government of the Republic of Hawaii having, in due form, signified its consent, in the manner provided by its constitution, to cede absolutely and without reserve to the United States of America all rights of sovereignty of whatsoever kind in and over the Hawaiian Islands and their dependencies, and also to cede and transfer to the United States the absolute fee and ownership of all public, Government, or Crown lands, public buildings or edifices, ports, har-

bors, military equipment, and all other public property of every kind and description belonging to the Government of the Hawaiian Islands, together with every right and appurtenance thereto appertaining: Therefore,

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That said cession is accepted, ratified, and confirmed, and that the said Hawaiian Islands and their dependencies be, and they are hereby, annexed as a part of the territory of the United States and are subject to the sovereign dominion thereof, and that all and singular the property and rights hereinbefore mentioned are vested in the United States of America.

The existing laws of the United States relative to public lands shall not apply to such lands in the Hawaiian Islands; but the Congress of the United States shall enact special laws for their management and disposition: Provided, That all revenue from or proceeds of the same, except as regards such part thereof as may be used or occupied for the civil, military, or naval purposes of the United States, or may be assigned for the use of the local government, shall be used solely for the benefit of the inhabitants of the Hawaiian Islands for educational and other public purposes.

Until Congress shall provide for the government of such islands all the civil, judicial and military powers exercised by the officers of the existing government in said islands shall be vested in such person or persons and shall be exercised in such manner as the President of the United States shall direct; and the President shall have power to remove said officers and fill the vacancies so occasioned.

The existing treaties of the Hawaiian Islands with foreign nations shall forthwith cease and determine, being replaced by such treaties as may exist, or as may be hereafter concluded, between the United States and such foreign nations. The municipal legislation of the Hawaiian Islands, not enacted for the fulfillment of the treaties so extinguished, and not inconsistent with this joint resolution nor contrary to the Constitution of the United States nor to any existing treaty of the United States, shall remain in force until the Congress of the United States shall otherwise determine.

Until legislation shall be enacted extending the United States customs laws and regulations to the Hawaiian Islands the existing cus-

toms relations of the Hawaiian Islands with the United States and other countries shall remain unchanged.

The public debt of the Republic of Hawaii, lawfully existing at the date of the passage of this joint resolution, including the amounts due to depositors in the Hawaiian Postal Savings Bank, is hereby assumed by the Government of the United States; but the liability of the United States in this regard shall in no case exceed four million dollars. So long, however, as the existing Government and the present commercial relations of the Hawaiian Islands are continued as hereinbefore provided said Government shall continue to pay the interest on said debt.

There shall be no further immigration of Chinese into the Hawaiian Islands, except upon such conditions as are now or may hereafter be allowed by the laws of the United States; and no Chinese, by reason of anything herein contained, shall be allowed to enter the United States from the Hawaiian Islands.

The President shall appoint five commissioners, at least two of whom shall be residents of the Hawaiian Islands, who shall, as soon as reasonably practicable, recommend to Congress such legislation concerning the Hawaiian Islands as they shall deem necessary or proper.

Sec. 2. That the commissioners hereinbefore provided for shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

Sec. 3. That the sum of one hundred thousand dollars, or so much thereof as may be necessary, is hereby appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, and to be immediately available, to be expended at the discretion of the President of the United States of America, for the purpose of carrying this joint resolution into effect.

Approved, July 7, 1898.

Under Section 2, the President appointed as commissioners Hon. Shelby M. Cullom, Hon. John T. Morgan and Hon. Robert R. Hitt, representing the United States; President Sanford B. Dole and Hon. Walter F. Frear, representing Hawaii.

LOCATION: COMMERCIAL AND NAVAL IMPORTANCE.

The Hawaiian Islands, formerly known as the Sandwich Islands, are situated in the North Pacific Ocean, and lie between longitude 154

degrees 40 minutes and 160 degrees 30 minutes west from Greenwich, and latitude 22 degrees 16 minutes and 18 degrees 55 minutes north. They are thus on the very edge of the tropics, but their position in mid-ocean and the prevalence of the northeast trade winds give them a climate of perpetual summer without enervating heat. The group occupies a central position in the North Pacific, 2,089 nautical miles southwest of San Francisco; 4,640 from Panama; 3,800 from Auckland, New Zealand; 4,950 from Hongkong, and 3,440 from Yokohama. Its location gives it great importance from a military as well as from a commercial point of view.

Broadly speaking, Hawaii may be said to lie about one-third of the distance on the accustomed routes from San Francisco to Japanese and Chinese ports; from San Francisco to Australia; from ports of British Columbia to Australia and British India, and about halfway from the Isthmus of Panama to Yokohama and Hongkong. The construction of a ship canal across the isthmus would extend this geographical relation to the ports of the Gulf of Mexico and of the Atlantic Seaboard of North and South America. No other point in the North Pacific has such a dominating relation to the trade between America and Asia, as a place of call and depot of supplies for vessels.

From a naval standpoint, Hawaii is the great strategic base of the Pacific. Under the present conditions of naval warfare, created by the use of steam as a motive power, Hawaii secures to the maritime nation possessing it an immense advantage as a depot for the supply of coal. Modern battleships, depending absolutely upon coal, are enabled to avail themselves of their full capacity of speed and energy only by having some halfway station in the Pacific where they can replenish their stores of fuel and refit. A battleship or cruiser starting from an Asiatic or Australian port, with the view of operating along the coast of either North America or South America, is unable to act effectively for any length of time at the end of so long a voyage unless she is able to refill her bunkers at some point on the way. On the other hand, the United States, possessing Hawaii, is able to advance its line of defense 2,000 miles from the Pacific coast, and, with a fortified harbor and a strong fleet at Honolulu, is in a position to conduct either defensive or offensive operations in the North Pacific to greater advantage than any other power.

AREA AND POPULATION.

For practical purposes, there are eight islands in the Hawaiian group. The others are mere rocks, of no value at present. These eight islands, beginning from the northwest, are named Niihau, Kauai, Oahu, Molokai, Lanai, Kahoolawe, Maui and Hawaii. The areas of the islands are:

	Square Miles.
Niihau	97
Kauai	590
Oahu	600
Molokai	270
Maui	760
Lanai	150
Kahoolawe	63
Hawaii	4,210
Total	6,740

As compared with States of the Union, the total area of the group approximates most nearly to that of the State of New Jersey—7,185 square miles. It is more than three times that of Delaware—2,050 square miles.

The islands that interest an intending immigrant are Hawaii, Maui, Oahu and Kauai. It is on these islands that coffee, fruits, potatoes, corn and vegetables can be raised by the small investor.

The island of Hawaii is the largest in the group, and presents great varieties of soil and climate. The windward side, which includes the districts of North Kohala, Hamakua, Hilo and Puna is copiously watered by rains, and in the Hilo district the streams rush impetuously down every gulch or ravine. The leeward side of the island, including South Kohala, North and South Kona, and Kau, is not exposed to such strong rains, but an ample supply of water falls in the rain belt. The Kona district has given the coffee product a name in the markets of the world. On this island are now situated numerous sugar plantations. Coffee employs the industry of several hundred owners. There are thousands of acres uncultivated and only awaiting the enterprise of the temperate zone to develop them.

Maui is also a very fine island. Besides its sugar plantations it

has numerous coffee lands, especially in the eastern part, which are just now being opened up. The western slopes of Haleakala, the main mountain of Maui, are covered with small farms, where are raised potatoes, corn, beans and pigs. Again, here, thousands of acres are lying fallow.

The Island of Oahu presents excellent opportunities for the investor. Many acres of land remain undeveloped among its fertile valleys, the energies of the population having been devoted to the development of the sugar lands on the larger islands. A line of railroad runs along the coast to a distance of 30 miles from the city. This railroad opens up rich coffee and farming lands and affords ready means of transport for the produce and an expeditious method for obtaining the necessary supplies from the capital.

Kauai is called the "Garden Island," it is so well watered and so luxuriant in vegetation. The island is largely devoted to the cultivation of sugar. Rice also cuts a considerable figure in the agricultural production of Kauai. That it can produce coffee is undoubted. Some forty years ago, the experiment of a coffee plantation was tried, and, owing to misjudgment of location and soil, failed. Since then, the cultivation of coffee has come to be more thoroughly understood.

THE CITY OF HONOLULU.

On Oahu is the capital, Honolulu. It is a city numbering 30,000 inhabitants, and is pleasantly situated on the south side of the Island. The city extends a considerable distance up Nuuanu Valley, and has wings extending northwest and southeast. Except in the business blocks, every house stands in its own garden, and some of the houses are very handsome.

The city is lighted with electric light, there is a complete telephone system, and tramcars run at short intervals along the principal streets and continue out to a sea-bathing resort and public park, four miles from the city. There are numerous stores where all kinds of goods can be obtained. The public buildings are attractive and commodious. There are numerous churches, schools, a public library of over 10,000 volumes, Y. M. C. A. Hall, Masonic Temple, Odd Fellows' Hall and theatre. There is frequent steam communication with San Francisco, once a month with Victoria (British Columbia), and twice a month with New Zealand and

the Australian Colonies. Steamers also connect Honolulu with China and Japan. There are three evening daily papers published in English, one daily morning paper and two weeklies. Besides these, there are papers published in the Hawaiian, Portuguese, Japanese and Chinese languages, and also monthly magazines in various tongues.

CENSUS OF 1897.

United States Consul-General Mills, of Honolulu, under date of February 8, 1897, transmitted to the Department of State the official figures showing the result of the census of the Hawaiian Islands, which had just been completed. The Hawaiians head the list with a total of 31,019. The Japanese colonization comes next, with the Chinese a close third. The official table, as prepared at the census office, is:

Nationality.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Hawaiian	16,399	14,620	31,019
Part Hawaiian	4,249	4,236	8,485
American	1,975	1,111	3,086
British	1,406	844	2,250
German	866	566	1,432
French	56	45	101
Norwegian	216	162	378
Portuguese	8,202	6,989	15,191
Japanese	19,212	5,195	24,407
Chinese	19,167	2,449	21,616
South Sea Islanders	321	134	455
Other nationalities	448	152	600
Total	72,517	36,503	109,020

TOPOGRAPHY AND CLIMATE.

The Hawaiian Islands are of volcanic formation, and there are two active volcanoes on Hawaii—Kilauea and Mauna Loa. The altitude of Mauna Kea, the highest point on Hawaii, is 13,805 feet. The mountains on other islands range from 4,000 to 5,000 feet. The topography is broken and diversified, with many valleys and streams. The mountain sides abound in forests, containing an abundance of ship timber and many ornamental woods. Among the minerals that have been noticed are sulphur, pyrites, common salt, sal ammoniac, limonite,

quartz, augite, chrysolite, garnet, labradorite, feldspar, gypsum, soda alum, copperas, glauber salts, niter and calcite.

"In the Hawaiian Islands," says a pamphlet of the Hawaiian Government, "Americans and Europeans can and do work in the open air at all seasons of the year, as they can not in countries lying in the same latitudes elsewhere. To note an instance, Calcutta lies a little to the north of the latitude of Kauai, our most northerly island, and in Calcutta the American and European can only work with his brain; hard physical labor he can not do and live. On the Hawaiian Islands, he can work and thrive."

The rainfall varies, being greater on the windward side of the islands, and increasing up to a certain elevation. Thus, at Olaa, on the Island of Hawaii, windward side and elevation of about 2,000 feet, the rainfall from July 1, 1894, to June 30, 1895, was 176.82 inches, while at Kailua, on the leeward side, at a low level, it was only 51.21 inches during the same period.

The temperature also varies according to elevation and position. On the Island of Hawaii, one can get any climate from the heat of summer to actual winter at the summits of the two great mountains. A meteorological record, kept carefully for a period of twelve years, gives 89 degrees as the highest and 54 degrees as the lowest temperature recorded, or a mean temperature of 71.5 degrees for the year. A case of sunstroke has never been known. People take no special precautions against the sun, wearing straw and soft felt hats similar to those worn in the United States during the summer months.

The prevailing winds are the northeast trades. These blow for about nine months of the year. The remainder of the period the winds are variable and chiefly from the south. The islands are outside the cyclone belt, and severe storms accompanied by thunder and lightning are of rare occurrence.

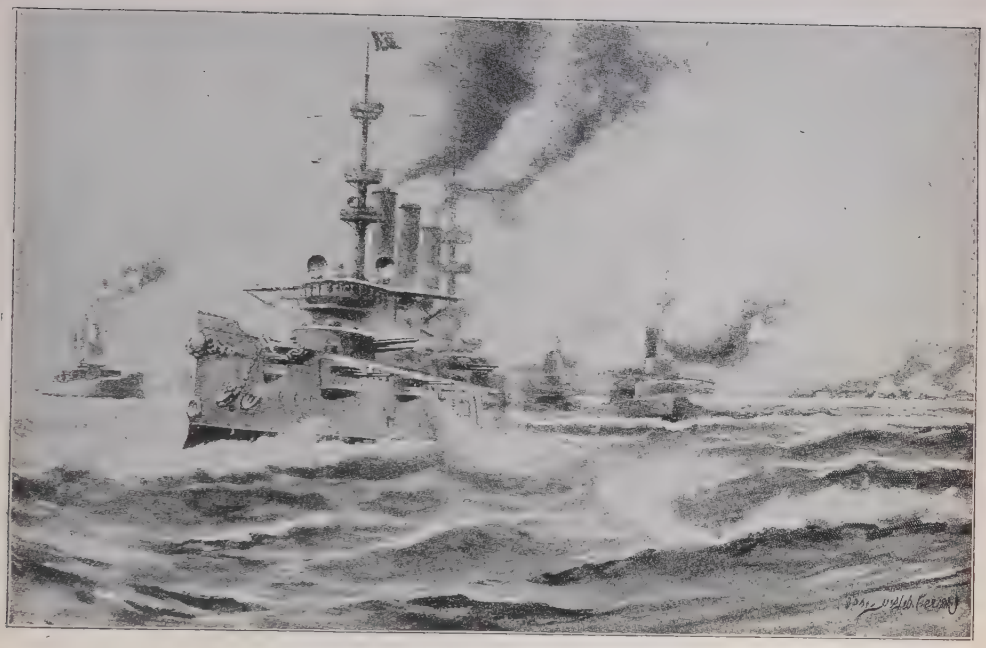
The islands possess a healthful climate. There are no virulent fevers such as are encountered on the coast of Africa or in the West India Islands. Epidemics seldom visit the islands, and when they do they are generally light. A careful system of quarantine guards the islands now from epidemics from abroad.

THE QUAYS, SAN JUAN, PORTO RICO.

THE OLD SEA WALL, SAN JUAN, PORTO RICO.

PANORAMA OF THE HARBOR OF SAN JUAN, PORTO RICO.

STREET OF THE CROSS, SAN JUAN, PORTO RICO.



BOMBARDMENT OF SAN JUAN, PORTO RICO.

HOISTING OLD GLORY.

DRIVE TO THE BELLAMOR CAVES, MATANZAS.

VILLA, NEAR MATANZAS.

A TROPICAL PLANTER'S HOME, IN CUBA.

NATIVES OF CUBA.

TACON THEATRE, HAVANA.

PASAGE HOTEL, HAVANA.

CRUSHING MILL, ON THE SUGAR PLANTATION.

A CUBAN VOLANTE.

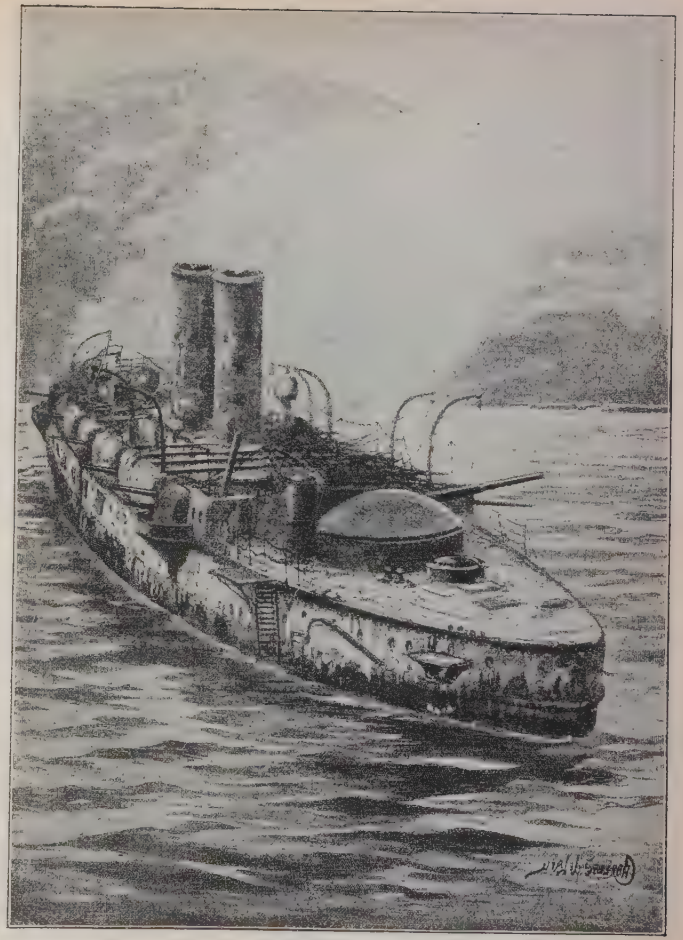
VESSELS OF THE NORTH ATLANTIC SQUADRON.

SPANISH SOLDIERS FORCING PASSAGE OF A SWAMP IN CUBA.

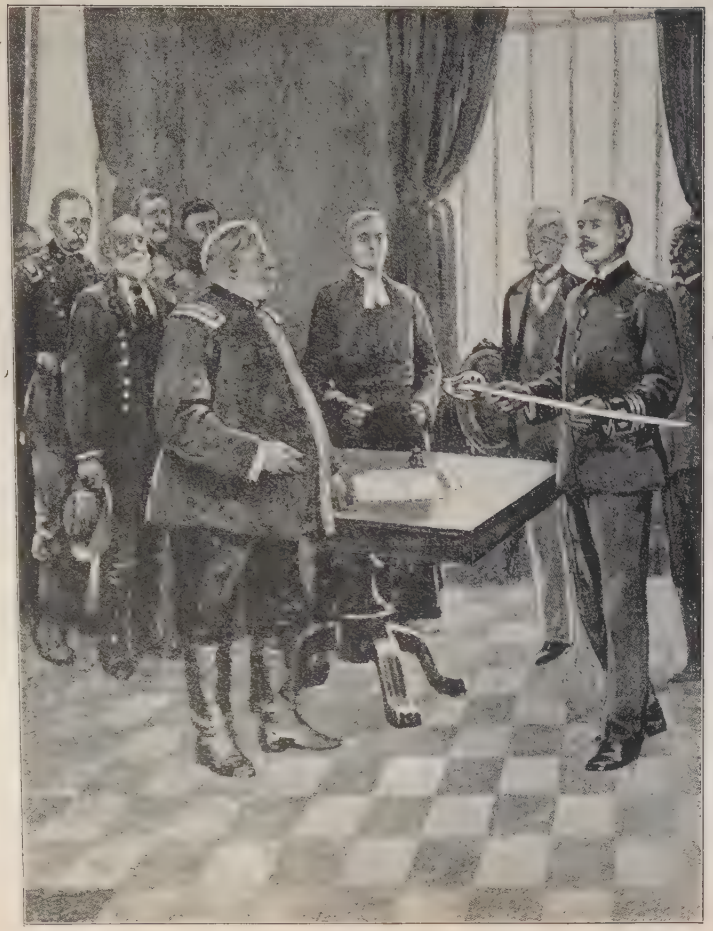
SPANISH OUTPOSTS IN CUBA.

FRIENDLY GREETING BETWEEN AMERICAN AND SPANISE SOLDIERS AFTER SURRENDER OF SANTIAGO.

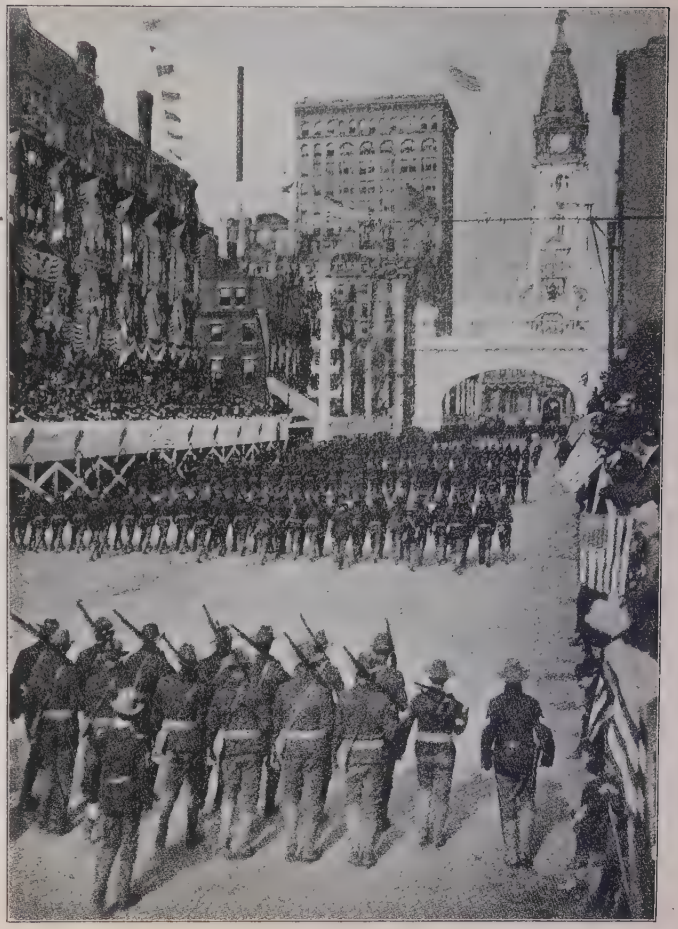
ON WATCH FOR SPANISH VESSELS.



SPANISH WAR VESSEL OQUENDO AFTER THE BATTLE OF SANTIAGO.



THE FALL OF SANTIAGO.



PHILADELPHIA'S MAGNIFICENT PEACE JUBILEE.

SIBONEY—CAMP OF ARMY ENGINEERS ENGAGED IN BUILDING A DOCK AND OPERATING THE SHORE RAILROAD.

GOVERNOR-GENERAL'S PALACE, OBISPO STREET, HAVANA, CUBa.

PRIMITIVE AGRICULTURE IN THE WEST INDIES—A CUBAN PLOWMAN.

THE RED CROSS DOCK AT SANTIAGO.

Spanish Soldiers Waiting for Distribution of Rations—Governor's Palace on the Hill in the Background.

VIEW OF THE HARBOR OF SANTIAGO, CUBA.

STREET SCENE, SANTIAGO.

A CUBAN SCOUT.

GOMEZ, THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF, EXPLAINS HIS TACTICS.
"The Spaniards never do know where I am—and when they do know I am gone."

OUTSKIRTS OF GOMEZ'S CAMP.

CUBAN GUIDE AND ESCORT.

AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES.

The pamphlet entitled "The Republic of Hawaii," issued by the Department of Foreign Affairs of the islands in 1896, gives a full account of the agricultural resources of the country, with interesting details as to the coffee industry, from which the following matter is extracted: The mainstay of the islands, it says, has for the last thirty-five years been the sugar industry. From this source a large amount of wealth has been accumulated. But the sugar industry requires large capital for expensive machinery, and has never proved remunerative to small investors. An attempt has been made at profit-sharing, and has met with some success, the small farmer cultivating and the capitalist grinding at a central mill. The small farmer has been steadily developing in the Hawaiian Islands, and attention has been given to other products than sugar.

Rice neither the European nor the American can cultivate as laborers. It requires working in marshy land, and though on the islands it yields two crops a year, none but the Chinaman can raise it successfully. A dry-land or mountain rice has been introduced.

The main staple, after sugar and rice, is coffee. Of this, hundreds of thousands of trees have been planted out within the last five years. This is essentially the crop of the future, and bids fair to become as important a staple as sugar. Coffee does not require the amount of capital that sugar does, and it can be worked remuneratively upon a small area. It is estimated that at the end of the fourth year the return from a 75-acre coffee plantation will much more than pay the running expenses, while from that time on a return of from $8,000 to $10,000 per annum may be realized.

Fruits can also be cultivated to advantage. At present, the banana trade of the islands amounts to over 100,000 bunches per annum, valued at over $100,000, and the quantity might be very easily quadrupled. The banana industry may be regarded as in its infancy. The export of the fruit is only from the Island of Oahu, but there are thousands of acres on the other islands of the group which could be profitably used for this cultivation and for nothing else. The whole question of the banana industry hinges on the market.

Limes and oranges can be cultivated and the fruit can be easily

packed for export. The fruits can be raised to perfection. The Hawaiian orange has a fine flavor, and the Hawaiian lime is of superior quality. In the uplands of Hawaii and Maui potatoes are raised. Their quality is good. Corn is also raised. In these industries many Portuguese, Norwegians and others have embarked. Both these products find an ample local market. The corn is used largely for feed on the plantations. The corn is ground with the cob, and makes an excellent feed for working cattle, horses, and mules.

In the uplands where the climate is temperate, as at Waimea, Hawaii, vegetables of all kinds can be raised; excellent cauliflowers, cabbages, and every product of the temperate zone can be grown to perfection.

Cattle raising in so small a place as the Hawaiian Islands does not present great opportunities except for local consumption. Pigs are profitable to the small farmer. In the Kula district of Maui, pigs are fattened upon the corn and potatoes raised in the district. The price of pork, dressed, is 25 cents per pound in Honolulu and about 15 cents per pound in the outside districts. The Chinese, of whom there are some 20,000 resident on the various islands, are extremely fond of pork, so that there is a large local market, which has to be supplemented by importations from California.

Attention has lately been given to fiber plants, for which there are many suitable locations. Ramie grows luxuriantly, but the lack of proper decorticating and cleaning machinery has prevented any advance in this cultivation.

Sisal hemp and sanseveira have been experimented with, but without any distinct influence upon the trade output.

The cultivation of pineapples is a growing industry. In 1895, "pines" were exported from the islands to San Francisco to the value of nearly $9,000.

The guava, which grows wild, can also be put to profit for the manufacture of guava jelly. It has never been entered upon on a large scale, but to the thrifty farmer it would add a convenient addition to his income, just as the juice of the maple adds an increase to the farmer of the Eastern States. Well-made guava jelly will find a market anywhere. In England it is regarded as a great delicacy, being imported from the West India Islands.

In the Hawaiian Islands a simple life can be lived, and entering

gradually upon the coffee industry, a good competence can be obtained long before such could be realized by the agriculturalist in less favored countries.

There is no finer coffee in the world, it is asserted, than that of the Hawaiian Islands. The trees require care and do not produce a crop until the third year; but they remain till the fifth year to make a proper realization upon the investment. In the Hawaiian Islands coffee grows best between 500 and 2,600 feet above the sea level, though there are cases in which it has done well close to the sea. It requires a loose, porous soil, and does not thrive well in heavy clayey ground which holds much water. Of such heavy land there is very little in the Hawaiian Islands. The soil is generally very porous.

It is very evident that coffee will thrive and give good results in varying conditions of soil and degrees of heat. In these islands it grows and produces from very nearly at the sea level to the elevation of 2,600 feet. The highest elevation of bearing coffee known in the islands is twenty-five miles from the town of Hilo and in the celebrated Olaa district.

For years it was thought that coffee would grow to advantage only in the Kona district of Hawaii. Practical experiment has shown that it can be grown with success in almost any part of the islands.

FOREIGN COMMERCE.

The United States practically monopolizes the trade of Hawaii.

The following tables show the exports and imports for 1894 and 1895:

EXPORTS.

Whither exported.	1894.	1895.
United States	$8,997,069.27	$8,392,189.54
Australia and New Zealand.	5,201.52	6,124.75
Islands of the Pacific	17,018.87	10,332.29
Japan and China	10,729.51	42,221.50
Canada	109,298.61	23,270.07
All others	1,476.78	.....
Total	$9,140,794.56	$8,474,138.15

IMPORTS.

Whence imported.	1894.	1895.
United States	$4,354,290.42	$4,516,319.38
Great Britain	465,479.72	471,122.98
Germany	140,233.07	110,751.61
China	230,270.41	223,701.56
Japan	183,867.52	207,125.59
Australia and New Zealand	186,518.75	122,804.60
Canada	118,198.57	30,731.21
Islands of the Pacific	21,570.24	1,192.51
France	8,786.31	7,849.90
Other countries	3,466.42	21,793.20
Whale ships	500.00	625.00
Total	$5,713,181.43	$5,714,017.54

TRANSPORTATION FACILITIES, POSTAL SYSTEM, ETC.

Seven steamship lines ply between Honolulu and the United States, one of them plying between Sidney, New South Wales, and Vancouver, British Columbia. The time consumed by the steamers between Honolulu and San Francisco is from six to seven days.

A large number of sailing vessels ply regularly between Honolulu and San Francisco, and also others coal laden from British Columbia and Australia which proceed to the United States either in ballast or with cargoes of sugar. Vessels arrive at Honolulu from European ports at comparatively rare intervals.

There are three railroads on the islands. The Oahu Railroad and Land Company, on Oahu, is about 30 miles in length; the Kahului Railroad, on the island of Maui, has 13 miles of road; and the Hawaiian Railroad, on the island of Hawaii, is about 20 miles in length.

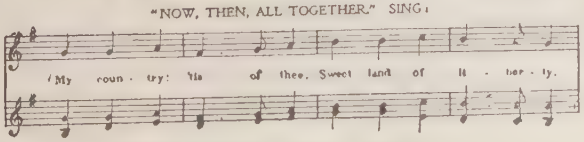
There is a regular postal system in the Hawaiian Islands, and on the arrival of a steamer at any main point mail carriers at once start out to distribute the mail through the district. The Hawaiian Islands belong to the Postal Union, and money orders can be obtained to the United States, Canada, Great Britain, Germany, Norway, Sweden,

Denmark, the Netherlands, Portugal, Hongkong and Colony of Victoria, as well as local orders between the islands.

The Hawaiian Islands were discovered by Captain James Cook, January 18, 1778, and by him given the name of Sandwich Islands in honor of his patron, the Earl of Sandwich, at that time first lord of the British Admiralty.

Formal possession was taken by the United States on August 12, 1898. At noon on that day the Hawaiian flag, with its eight stripes, alternate white, red and blue, with the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew in the corner, was hauled down and Old Glory flung to the breeze. The band played the "Star Spangled Banner" and the "cross-roads of the Pacific" was American territory.

"NOW, THEN, ALL TOGETHER." SING:



Singing school at the little red schoolhouse.—*Chicago Tribune.*

CHAPTER XXXVII.

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

A REVIEW OF THEIR HISTORY, WITH A DESCRIPTION OF THEIR RESOURCES AND INHABITANTS—THE FILIPINOS IN PEACE AND IN WAR.

THE most important of the possessions ceded to the United States in the Spanish peace treaty is the group of islands known as the Philippine archipelago, the westernmost of the four great tropical groups of the Pacific. To be exact, the Philippines are situated between 4 and 20 degrees north latitude and 161 and 127 degrees east longitude, in front of China and Cochin China. The archipelago is composed of islands variously estimated in number from 600 to 2,000, with an approximate area of 114,000 square miles.

The principal islands are Luzon (Batanes, Babuyanes, Polillo, Calanduanes, Mindoro, Marinduque, Burias, Masbate, etc., lying adjacent) on the north; the Visayas (Tablas, Panay, Negros, Cebu, Bohol, Leyte, Samar, etc.), prolonged southwest by the Calamaines, Palawan, and Balabac; Mindanao and the adjacent islands Dinagat, Surigao, Basilan, etc., and on the extreme south, the Sulu archipelago. The Island of Luzon, on which the capital is situated, is larger than New York and Massachusetts, and Mindanao is nearly as large. An idea of the extent of the Philippines may be formed when it is stated that the six New England States and New York, New Jersey, Maryland and Delaware have 10 per cent less area.

The approximate area of the larger islands is as follows: Luzon, 41,000; Mindanao, 37,500; Samar, 5,300; Panay, 4,600; Palawan, 4,150; Mindoro, 4,050; Leyte, 3,090; Negros, 2,300; Cebu, 1,650; Masbate, 1,315; Bohol, 925; Catanduanes.

Islands having an area of from 100 to 250 square miles are as

follows: Bosilan, Busuanga, Culion, Marinduque, Tablas, Dinagat, Sulu, Guimaras, Tawi Tawi, Signijor, Balabac, Sibuyan, Panaon, Camiguin, Romblon, Ticao, Burias, Biliran, Siargao and Polillo.

The length of the archipelago from north to south is 1,300 miles, while the extreme width is about 600 miles.

The principal international ports are Manila, Albay, and Sual (on Luzon); Cebu, Leyte and Iloilo (on the Visayas); and Zamboanga (on Mindanao). The coasts are high, and coral reefs are numerous. There are reasons for the hypothesis that the Philippines are peaks, mountain ridges, and table lands of a submerged continent, which in a very early geological period extended to Australia. Lines of volcanoes, extinct and active (the number of the latter being small) run approximately east and west. The general direction of the chain of mountains is north and south, the highest, Apo, in Mindanao, reaching 10,000 feet. The rivers and streams are countless, and traverse the islands in all directions. There are many hot springs of iron and sulphur waters, with excellent medicinal properties.

CLIMATE AND POPULATION.

The climate varies little from that of other places in the same latitude. The archipelago is under the isotherm of 79 degrees, and the thermometer ranges during the year from 60 to 90 degrees. The seasons vary according to the aspect of the country, the months from March to May being the hottest, and November to February the coldest. During the rainy season, which lasts from June until November, inundations of rivers are frequent. There are occasional monsoons, but the climate as a whole is considered healthful, for the tropics. The endemic complaints of the country are swamp fever, diarrhoea, beri-beri, and a few others. Yellow fever is practically unknown, and the rate of mortality is very low.

The population has been estimated at from 8,000,000 to 10,000,000, of which number about 25,000 are Europeans, about half of the latter residing in the city of Manila. The present American population is not included in these figures.

The Philippines, under the Spanish administration, were divided into three governments—Luzon, Visayas and Mindanao. The Governor-

General resided at Manila, to which belonged, for administrative purposes, the Caroline, Ladrone and Pelew Islands. In many of the Philippine Islands, especially in the interior of Mindanao, the natives were independent. The provinces were subdivided into districts, and these again into communes or parishes.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Manila, the capital of the entire archipelago, is situated in the Island of Luzon, at the mouth of the River Pasig, which empties into the Bay of Manila. The city has 300,000 inhabitants, of whom 15,000 are Europeans and 100,000 Chinese, who are largely engaged in industry. It is the seat of a yearly increasing commerce. The houses are built with reference to earthquakes, and although large, possess few pretensions to architectural beauty. The city proper within the walls is small, little more than two miles in circumference. Here are grouped the government buildings and religious institutions. The suburbs, of which Binondo ranks first in order of importance, are the centers of trade. The police of the city were under military discipline and composed of natives. A force of watchmen, paid by the tradesmen, patrolled the more populous part of the city from 10 o'clock at night until 5 in the morning. A very low average of crime is said to exist, though the native classes are much addicted to gambling, cock-fighting, etc. At the time of American occupation there were six daily papers: "El Diario de Manila," "La Oceania Española," published in the morning, and "El Comercio," "La Voz Española," "El Español," and "El Noticero," which appear in the evening.

Manila has a cathedral of the seventeenth century, an Archbishop's palace, a university school of art, an observatory, a large government cigar factory, and many educational and charitable institutions.

At the beginning of the war there was not one United States firm located in the Philippine Islands. The harbor has been greatly improved since Admiral Dewey's victory. A new patent slipway, 820 feet long, with 2,000 tons lifting power, was built, and a new fort was constructed at Malate.

Tramways run in the principal streets, and the city is lighted by electricity and has a telephone system. Drinking water is brought in

pipes from Santalan, on the River Pasig. The mean temperature is 80.2 F.

There are some 4,000 horses in the city, used for carriages and street cars. Buffaloes are employed for dray and other heavy work.

On February 6, 1898, Manila suffered from a severe fire, and it is interesting to note that the city would have been lost had it not been for the excellent service of a fire engine which had been imported from the United States.

Iloilo, the chief town of the populous province of the same name, in the Island of Panay, is situated in latitude 10 degrees 48 minutes W., near the southeastern extremity of the island, and 250 miles from Manila. The harbor is well protected and the anchorage good. At spring tides, the whole town is covered with water, but notwithstanding this it is a very healthy place, there being always a breeze. It is much cooler in Iloilo than in Manila. The means of communication with the interior are very inadequate, and retard the development of the port. The principal manufacture is pineapple cloth. The country around Iloilo is very fertile and is extensively cultivated, sugar, tobacco, and rice being grown, and there are many towns in the vicinity that are larger than the port.

Cebu, the capital of the island of this name, was at one time the seat of the administration of revenue for the whole of the Visayas. It is well-built and possesses fine roads. The trade is principally in hemp and sugar.

Other towns are Laog, with a population (1887) of 30,642; Banang, 35,598; Batangas, 35,587, and Lipa, 43,408.

MINERAL AND AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES.

The principal mineral productions are gold, galena, copper, iron, mercury and coal. Extensive auriferous ore deposits have been opened up, and they are known to exist in many of the islands, chiefly in Luzon, Bengues, Vicols and Mindanao. Very little exploration or systematic mining has been attempted, but it is said that there is no brook that empties into the Pacific Ocean, whose sand and gravel does not at least pan the color of gold. Heavy nuggets are sometimes brought down from the sierras.

Galena (50 per cent of pure metal) is found in veins in Luzon and

Cebu. Copper has been discovered in many parts of the Philippines. Iron (75 to 80 per cent of pure metal) is known to exist in Luzon. The coal found up to the present time is not true coal, but lignite. It is probable, however, that true coal will be found, for it is worked in Japan, whose geological formation has much in common with that of the Philippines. No systematic search has been made in the islands for coal. A local steamship owner draws his supplies from a bed in the Island of Masbate, and the carboniferous formation extends over the greater part of the Island of Cebu. On the small Island of Batan, southeast of Luzon, are extensive deposits, said to be of good quality. Rubies were accidentally found in a sample of alluvial gold brought down from one of the upper valleys of the sierras.

Agriculturally, the land of the Philippines is wonderfully productive—hemp, cotton, rice, maize, tobacco, sugar, coffee and cacao growing in abundance. Only one-fifth of the area is under cultivation. So wasteful have been the native agricultural methods, that the harvests have in some places diminished. This is especially true of maize in Cebu and sugar in the province of Pangasinan, where new plantations must be made every year; while at Negros, the land yields many years in succession. The rice production, formerly very large, has now so fallen off that importations have been found necessary. For the same reasons, the production of cotton is also diminishing. The quality of the cotton is fine and silky, and this would easily become a valuable product if attention were given to its cultivation. The province of Ilocus (North and South) are especially adapted to the growth of this plant, the rainy season being here well defined.

Hemp (abaca), the most important product of the archipelago, is the fiber of a species of banana. It is produced by scraping the leaves with a peculiar knife, which requires expert handling. Many contrivances to supersede this process have been tried, but without success. Thread is spun from the fiber and cloth woven that exceeds the best Tussore silk.

The production of sugar is gradually developing, the principal centers of production being the provinces of Batangas, Pampanga, Ilocus, Pangasinan, and Bulacan. It also grows in Iloilo and the Islands of Cebu and Negros. The plantations so far have been small and the machinery antiquated.

Tobacco would be an important source of wealth to the Philippines,

with proper management. The quality has been allowed to deteriorate. A large number of companies are engaged in this industry. The two most important are the Compagnie Générale des Tabacs des Philippines (the capital of which, $14,500,000 gold, is principally in the hands of French bondholders) and the Insular. Each of these establishments employs from 5,000 to 6,000 workmen.

Coffee, though not equal to Mocha or Bourbon, has a fine aroma. It grows in the provinces of Batangas, Cavite, and Zamboanga, and is exported chiefly to Spain. The cocoanut tree is found everywhere, and cocoanut oil is used for lighting the houses and streets of certain provinces where electricity or petroleum is as yet unknown. The native indigo is famous for its excellent quality. Several years ago the provinces of Ilocus, Pangasinan, Pampanga and Camarines produced enormously. Unfortunately, the faulty preparation, and the adulteration to which the powder was subjected by Chinese traders have greatly reduced its market value. It is now exported chiefly to Japan.

The wealth of timber in the Philippines is incalculable, yielding resins, gums, dye products, fine-grained ornamental wood, and also heavy timber suitable for building purposes. Teak, ebony, and sandalwood are found; also ilang-ilang, camphor, pepper, cinnamon, tea and all tropical fruits. Sweet potatoes grow readily.

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY.

The commerce of the Philippine Islands has been calculated at $10,000,000 imports, and $20,000,000 exports for 1896 and 1897, although the average value of the trade is probably greater, having suffered in the past few years on account of political conditions. Nearly one-third of the exports go to Great Britain, and over one-fourth of the imports come from that country. The trade of Spain with the Philippines has been about the same for imports and exports, each class amounting to nearly $5,000,000 in value. The United States, France and Germany follow in the order of importance of trade. The principal articles of import are flour, wines, clothing, petroleum, coal, rice, arms, machinery, and iron. The exports consist chiefly of sugar, hemp, tobacco, and copra. Details of trade with the United States for 1896-7 are given by the United States Treasury as follows:

IMPORTS INTO UNITED STATES.

Articles.	1896. Quantities.	1896. Values.	1897. Quantities.	1897. Values.
Hemp, manila..... tons..	35,584	$2,499,494	38,533	$2,701,651
Cane sugar (not above No. 16).....pounds..	142,075,344	2,270,902	72,463,577	1,199,202
Fiber, vegetable, not hemp .....tons..	872	68,838	5,450	384,155
Fiber, vegetable, manufactures of.....	.....	26,428	.....	22,170
Straw, manufactures of.....	.....	81,352	.....	72,137
Tobacco ..... pounds..	1,280	808	2,745	2,338
Miscellaneous	.....	35,035	.....	1,087
Total	.....	$4,982,857	.....	$4,383,740

EXPORTS FROM UNITED STATES.

Cotton, manufactures of.....	.....	$9,714	.....	$2,164
Oils, mineral, refined.....gallons..	1,130,769	89,958	600,837	45,908
Varnish ..... do.	1,138	1,500	2,483	2,239
All other	.....	61,274	.....	44,286
Total	.....	162,446	.....	94,597

It should be noted that our trade is really much larger (especially in the item of exports to the islands) than is indicated by the above figures. Large quantities of provisions (flour, canned goods, etc.) are sent to Hongkong or other ports for transshipment, and are credited to those ports instead of to Manila.

Besides the numerous tobacco establishments to which reference has been made, there are rice factories, sugar mills, distilleries, factories of rope, soap, aerated waters, brickyards, sawmills, etc. The purely native industries consist of work in bamboo and cotton, engraving, making straw hats, etc. Very exquisite embroidery is done on silk and pineapple cloth, and there is also wood carving and work in gold and silver. The manufacture of cotton goods often forms the occupation of an entire village, and this industry is far from being of insignificant proportions.

RAILROADS, TELEGRAPHS AND STEAMSHIPS.

At the time of the war there was but one railway in the islands—from Manila to Dagupin—a distance of 123 miles. It is single track and well built, with steel rails its entire length; the bridges are of stone or iron, and the station buildings substantial. English engines are used, which make 45 miles per hour. The government assisted in the construction of the road by making valuable concessions of land

with right of way its entire length, and by guaranteeing 8 per cent per year upon the stock of the road for a period of ninety-nine years, when it is to become State property. Up to date of the report (1895) the road paid more than 10 per cent per annum to shareholders. Merchandise amounting to 214,100 tons was carried in 1898. Dagupin is about a mile from the Gulf of Lugayan, on a branch of the River Agno.

There are about 720 miles of telegraph in the islands. A cable connects Manila with Hongkong, and there is one from Manila to the Visayas Islands, and a new one is being laid to Cape Bolinao.

There is one steamship line from Manila to Liverpool, known as the Compañia Transatlantica, which maintains a monthly service to Europe, calling at Singapore, Colombo, Aden, Suez, Port Said and Barcelona en route. The Spanish Royal Mail Line from Barcelona to Manila leaves every twenty-eight days. Four lines of steamers are in the service to Hongkong. The local mail steamers from Manila to the provinces leave the capital every alternate Saturday.

The North Luzon line is from Manila to Subig, Olangapo, Bolinao, San Fernando, Croayan, Currimas (all these on the west coast of Luzon and Appari, entrance to Rio Grande, in the extreme north of Luzon). The South Luzon line runs from Manila to Batangas, Calapan, Laguimanos, Passacao, Donsol, Sorsogon, Legaspi and Tabaco.

The Southeast line runs from Manila to Romolon, Cebu, Cabolian, Surigao, Camiguin, Cagayan de Misamis, Iligan, Harihohoe, Bais, Iloilo. The Southwest line runs from Manila to Iloilo, Zamboanga, Isabela de Basilan, Iolo (Sula) Siassi, Tataan, Bongao, Parang Parang, Cottabato, Glan, Sarangani, Dayas, Matti Lebak, St. Maria.

The native population may be classified as Negritos, Mohammedan Malays, pagan Malays and civilized Malays, and these are divided into eighty or more different tribes. The first named were the original inhabitants and are confined to Mindanao and Negros and some parts of Luzon. They are rapidly disappearing and have degenerated into an undersized, sickly race.

The Mohammedan Malays, or Moros, as they are called, are principally found in Mindanao, Palawan, Basilan, Sulu, Tawi Tawi and Mindoro. They are a warlike race and have never been wholly subjugated by the Spaniards. Originally they came from Borneo and maintained almost constant warfare with the Spanish. They are ruled by a Sultan and still practice piracy and slavery.

SLAVERY IN THE PHILIPPINES.

The chief Philippine slave market and port for their export is Maibun, the old capital of Sulu. Harun Narrasid, the Mohammedan Sultan of Sulu—now a United States subject—is the central factor of the slave-holding and slave-selling business of the entire group. The Moros continue, though upon a somewhat limited scale, the practices of their ancestors, the bloodthirsty Malay pirates who reddened Philippine waters for several centuries. No admixture of blood could be more favorable to slave-holding than that of Malay and Mohammedan, according to Professor Otis Mason, the noted ethnologist. Among their slaves are found Malays captured from Sumatra, Papuans from New Guiana, Siamese, Javanese and Timorese. By collecting them within their dominion the Sulu masters have aided greatly in producing the peculiar mixture of stocks which now bothers anthropologists.

At the time of American occupation piratical expeditions were still gathering as many captives as they could safely attack in neighboring islands. The warlike Moros of Sulu and the islands thereabout, moreover, adhere to the ancient barbarous custom of casting into slavery such of their captives of war as do not suffer death. Their most ready customers for able-bodied male slaves for many years were the Dutch planters in the Island of Borneo, to the southwest.

More criminal even than this piratical slave-gathering is the custom of selling innocent children into bondage, generally practiced by the Mohammedan Malays. The parent who is in need of money lends, or, rather, gives his child as security for the loan, and the little one is condemned to labor until the debt is paid, which seldom, if ever, occurs. Very few children thus sold into slavery ever regain their freedom.

Moro warriors try the edges of their weapons by striking down their slaves, according to Professor Worcester. Moro slaves in Sulu represent all phases of slavery practiced in ancient or modern times—slaves by birth, slaves by capture in war or by piracy, bonded children, and insolvent debtors.

Few, if any, white slaves were found in the Philippines. The reason is simple. All whites are regarded as Christians by the Moros, and Christians must pay a penalty more serious than slavery—or perhaps less serious—death. The Moro believes that he increases his pleasure in the next world directly as the square of the number of Christian

lives dispatched by his hand. If he dies slaughtering Christians he insures himself a cozy corner in the Mohammedan seventh heaven. Rather than commit suicide, a Moro wearied of life prefers to sneak to some Christian settlement and massacre as many unsuspecting men, women or children as he can reach before being shot. All of this sounds like a fairy tale, but it is the testimony of an American Philippine commissioner.

Colonel Hilder, of the United States Bureau of Ethnology, said of the Moros at the time of the Aguinaldo insurrection:

"We will probably have more serious times with them than we are now having with Aguinaldo's followers. Spain failed to conquer them because she feared the general hatred of the Moslem for the Christian. Our soldiers will find them to be fierce foes at close quarters. They take great care of their arms. On making an attack they make hideous faces to scare their opponents. They protect their heads and bodies with immense shields, below which their legs are kept vibrating to resist missiles. When bayoneted they seize the barrels of the soldiers' muskets and drive the steel further into them, that they may get close enough to kill their adversaries before falling.

"They behead their enemies by a peculiar continuation of the same movement with which they draw their huge knives. Just previous to our war with Spain the resident Governor of Sulu protected the lives of himself and staff by establishing picket lines about the capital and ordering all Moros to disarm under the aim of Spanish soldiers before crossing them. A Governor who neglected to secure himself thus had his skull split to the teeth by Sultan Harun, whose warriors massacred the citizens of the town. The Spanish home government, knowing the danger of the post, was in the habit of appointing officials suspected of republican ideas to the governorship of Sulu."

Slavery in the Philippines was just as illegal under Spanish control as it is under ours to-day. By an ancient decree made by King Philip II., 300 years ago, all slaves in the islands were set free and no more were to be taken in the future, either by Spaniards or natives. Child slaves were to be free upon becoming 20 years old, and those above 20 at the time of the decree were to serve five years longer before gaining freedom. Any slave before reaching the limit prescribed could purchase his liberty by paying a price determined by the Governor or the Bishop.

In spite of this prohibition, slavery has ever since existed in the islands. The Spanish Governor of Sulu just previous to the war allowed his Moro scout a home within the Spanish capital and permitted him to keep there several wives and forty slaves.

According to the ancient historian, Juan de la Concepcion, writing in 1788, there were, at the time the Spaniards conquered the Philippines, headsmen who owned as many as 300 slaves apiece. As property they were ranked second only to gold in value. Thus it will be seen that the introduction of slavery in her Asiatic possessions was not the work of Spain, although she never took pains to wipe it out. As elsewhere in the Orient, it is of Mohammedan origin.

Commissioner Worcester also found that white slavery still existed among the enlightened Mohammedans, but white slaves as a rule were humanely treated. The blacks, however, suffered all kinds of atrocities. The interior of Africa even to-day is a hunting ground for negro slaves, caught mostly by Arabs, who sell them to Mohammedans. In 1890 an agreement was formally drawn up between Uncle Sam, the European powers, and several Oriental governments, to put a stop to African slave capture. These nations also agreed to forbid the importation or exportation of slaves. Turkey was a party to this agreement, and although the Sultan is the head of the Mohammedan Church, he is not likely to aid the Moslems in a holy war against the Yankee Christians.

Mohammedan war junks ravaged every coast of the Philippines before the Spaniards succeeded in reducing their piracy. Thousands of colonists have been murdered by these, villages have been sacked, churches looted, and Spanish subjects driven far inland. As one historian remarks, the Spaniards probably would never have penetrated these islands further than the coast line had these bloodthirsty pirates not scared them into the highlands.

At one time her Philippine colonists became so absolutely penniless and miserable as a result of this slave-hunting among them that the crown had to remit the payment of the regularly collected tribute for four years. Natives whom the Spanish friars had Christianized were carried off with the Spanish Christians, while the priests themselves were looked upon as the richest prizes whom the Moros could capture. Once the Sultans of Sulu and Mindanao formed an alliance to further piracy and slave-hunting, which previously had been confined mostly to the waters of their neighborhood. They spread the business

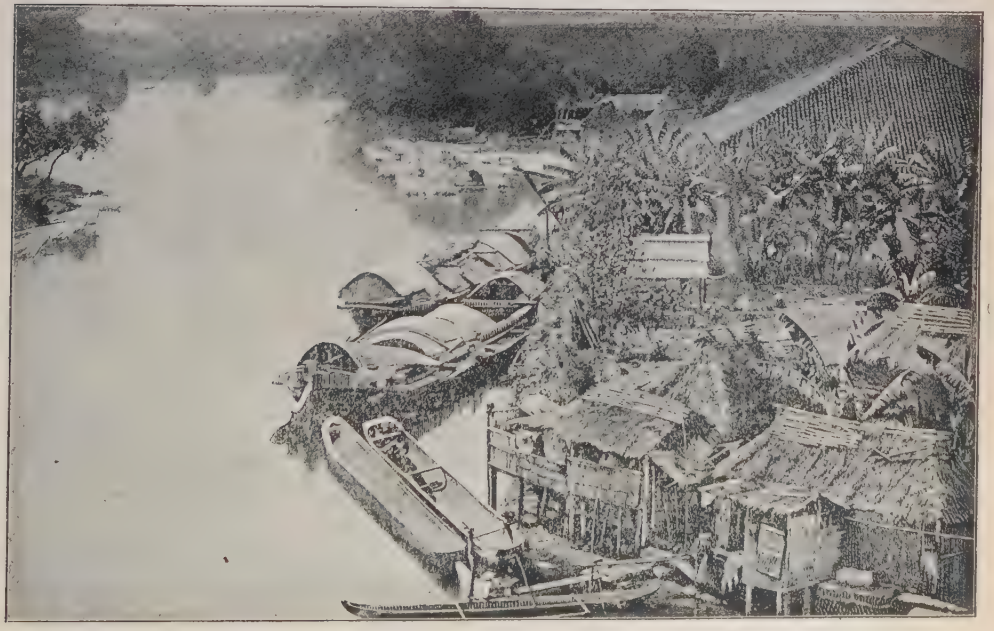
EMILIO AGUINALDO, MILITARY DICTATOR OF THE FILIPINOS.

From a photograph furnished by Felipe Aguincillo, Aguinaldo's Envoy Plenipotentiary to the United States.

THE GREAT NAVAL ENGAGEMENT IN MANILA BAY.

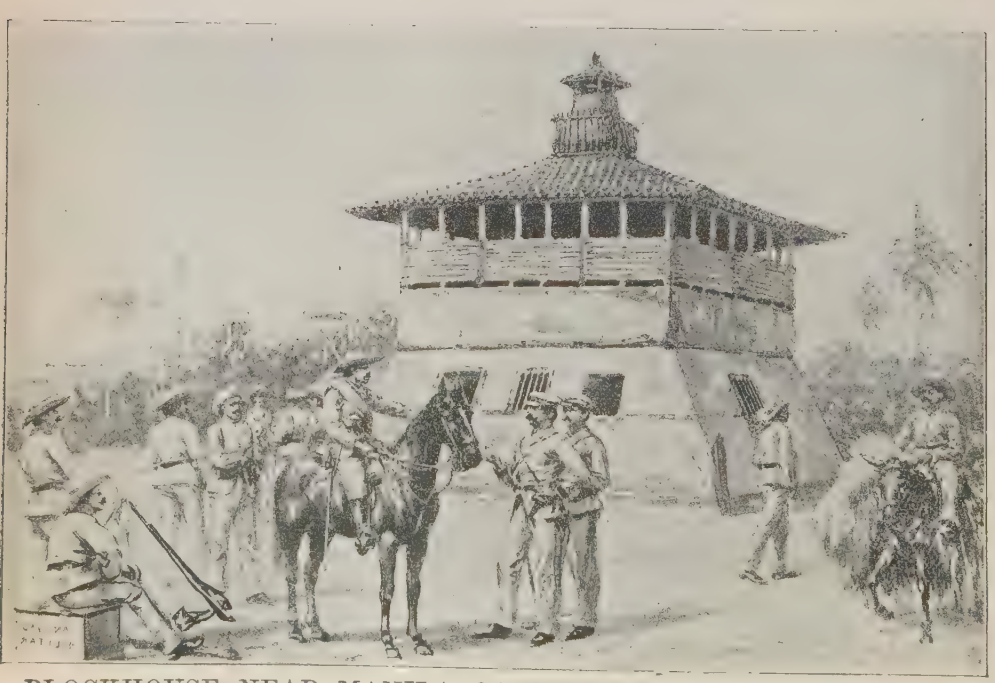
SPANISH FLEET AFTER BATTLE OF MANILA.

STREET SHOWING DWELLINGS AND SUBURBS OF MANILA.



VIEW ON PASSIG RIVER, NEAR MANILA.

THE ASTOR BATTERY AT PRACTICE NEAR MANILA.



BLOCKHOUSE NEAR MANILA CAPTURED BY ASTOR BATTERY.

THE SIXTH CAVALRY HAULING PINE BOUGHS.

THE TENTH COLORED DRAGOONS AT SKIRMISH PRACTICE.

DEADLY EFFECT OF THE BOMBARDMENT FROM DEWEY'S SHIPS WHILE JOINING WITH THE LAND FORCES UNDER GENERAL MERRITT IN THE TAKING OF MANILA, AUGUST 13th, 1898.

This photograph shows a room in the fortress where forty Spanish soldiers were killed by the explosion of an American shell.

SQUAD OF SPANISH PRISONERS, SURRENDERED TO GENERAL GREEN BEFORE MANILA, AUGUST 13th, 1898.

TRIUMPHAL "LIBERTY" ARCH, DESIGNED BY AGUINALDO, AND ERECTED IN CELEBRATION OF HIS ELECTION TO THE PRESIDENCY OF THE FILIPINOS.

AGUINALDO REVIEWING THE FILIPINO TROOPS AT BACOOR.

BUILDING R. R. THROUGH SWAMP.

COMPLETED R. R. THROUGH SWAMP.

CAMP PEREZ. R. R. BUILDERS' SHACKS.

A TORPEDO-STATION DIVER READY TO DESCEND.

AN AMERICAN TROOPSHIP

AN INSURGENT TROOPER IN CUBA.

QUADROON TYPE AT PONCE, PORTO RICO.

BRIGADIER-GENERAL FRED FUNSTON.

over the entire group, and organized fleets of junks, armed almost as strongly as the Spanish vessels, did the work.

The Spaniards failed to eradicate this wholesale piracy until a large fleet of gunboats was placed in the Philippine waters. Mindoro, the nearest island to Manila Bay, is still called "White Man's Grave."

In this Island of Mindoro dwells a tribe of primitive savages known as the Mangyans. Americans proved that they did not merit the bad reputation they had received as head-hunters and cannibals. They were found to be harmless people, of child-like simplicity, dwelling in crude huts, wearing little or no clothing, and subsisting upon grain, vegetables, roots, tubers, birds, civet-cats, rats, monkeys, snakes, lizards, fish and crocodiles. Professor Worcester found them to be moral and honest.

In the same island, however, is a tribe known as Tusilones, who are bandits and bushrangers of the worst type, and their frequent robberies and murders have given a generally bad reputation to all the inhabitants of Mindoro.

Among other wild tribes of the Philippines are the Gaddanes, Altasanes and Apayaos. They are generally known as Igorrotes, once the name of a head-hunting tribe, but now generally applied to all wild people.

THE "CIVILIZED" FILIPINOS.

It is with the so-called civilized tribes, however, that the United States first experienced trouble in the Philippines. They number in all about 5,000,000 people and their tribal names are Tagallos, Ilocanos and Visayans. It is of these three tribes we speak when referring generally to the Filipinos.

Physically, the Filipino is small, though athletic. The men range in height between five feet and five feet six inches, with occasional exceptions both above and below those extremes, the women ranging about three inches lower. The man has a deep chest and good lung development. He is strong for his size and capable of considerable physical effort, yet much indisposed to make it, and not possessing a disposition for prolonged exertion, being utterly devoid of the faculty of steady, persistent pegging away at things, so characteristic of the Anglo-Saxon. This proved a serious weakness in him as a soldier.

The American faculty of fighting all night and all the next day has

both surprised and demoralized them. It was the custom of Aguinaldo's army, when fighting the Spaniards, to make night attacks, resting in the daytime. Night after night, while the Americans were encamped at Cavité waiting for enough troops to arrive to render the advance upon Manila advisable, the sounds of conflict were borne to their ears across the water some six miles from the scene of fighting. The incessant rattle of the Filipino fire at will was punctuated every few minutes by a volley from the Spaniards and the heavy boom of the guns on Fort Malate. At first the Americans took these battles seriously, and supposed that gory fields were being strewn with the dead of both armies; but no wounded came back to the hospital, nor were there any other evidences of an actual battle. They soon learned the nature of these conflicts, and they were the subject of much joking among the men. It was found that the Filipinos kept few men in the trenches in the daytime, the heat of the day being their hours for the tropical siesta, but as night drew on their soldiers straggled back to the trenches in ones and twos, to be ready for the night's work.

Neither side could see the other, and both fired high, owing to the fact that neither ventured to put their heads above the edge of their entrenchments. For an hour or two this fusillade would be kept up, and then the fire would gradually die down and peace would reign until the next night. It was amusing to see the Filipinos swaggering about and telling how many Spaniards they had killed, how valiant they were, and how they were going to capture the city next Sunday. Even boys ten to twelve years of age strutted around with knives strapped to their waists, and declared their intentions of cutting the throats of all Spaniards.

This was the style of fighting the Filipinos were accustomed to, and when the Americans advanced against them and rushed them time after time, and kept it up all day long, they were unable to stand it, and broke ground hastily whenever the American lines advanced. Deprived of his siesta, and compelled to fight or run, the Filipino was outfought, and showed clearly his lack of staying qualities.

Physically, also, there is a taint of disease in the Filipino blood that renders it undesirable for mixture with the American. Go where you will, in country or city, evidence of this may be seen on every side. Scars, blotches, white spots, scabs and running sores can be seen on young and old; not on all, but upon so many that it gives one the im-

pression of being general. This is more noticeable in the children, whose bare limbs and bodies, covered by but a single cotton garment depending from the shoulders, present a sickening sight. Fully half of them appear to be afflicted in this way. The ravages of smallpox are also observable in thousands of faces.

Treachery is a universal trait. Even in battle this assassin's instinct governs them. One instance that shows this trait in their character vividly, is that of the Ermita Hospital. This was situated in the southern portion of the city and more than a mile from the American lines; yet bushwhackers in trees nearby fired into it continually, killing a Sergeant. At last they were located, and two of them were brought to the ground by well-directed shots from the hospital guards. Upon examination, one of these proved to be a man who had been a driver of the hospital ambulance.

There was no way of telling bushwhackers from non-combatants. All were dressed alike in innocent white clothing, and all possessed a tiny white flag as a sign of peace.

The Filipino has been given some credit for bravery in battle. This in a measure is true, but it is not the bravery of the Caucasian. He is pugnacious and quick to fight when angered, but his valor is that of passion, not the courage of the soldier who coolly and steadily advances all day in the face of a murderous fire. So long as he could remain under cover and shoot he stayed there, even when his comrades were being killed around him, but when his enemy rushed upon him he could not face the conflict, and hastily retreated. As to imitating the Americans and advancing across the open against an entrenched foe, it would be impossible for him even to attempt it.

Cruelty is another characteristic of the Filipino. He abuses his animals, and has the Indian's pleasure in the mutilation of his enemy. The insurgents took delight in telling before Manila was captured that they were going to kill all the Spaniards in the city, and always accompanied the remark with a significant drawing of the hand across the throat.

Mentally the Filipinos are very deceptive. They give a first impression of intellectuality. They are very alert and quick of apprehension, even precocious in their childhood and youth. The young Filipinos of both sexes are very quick to understand, but they are not capable of deep cogitation or continued logical thought. They have the

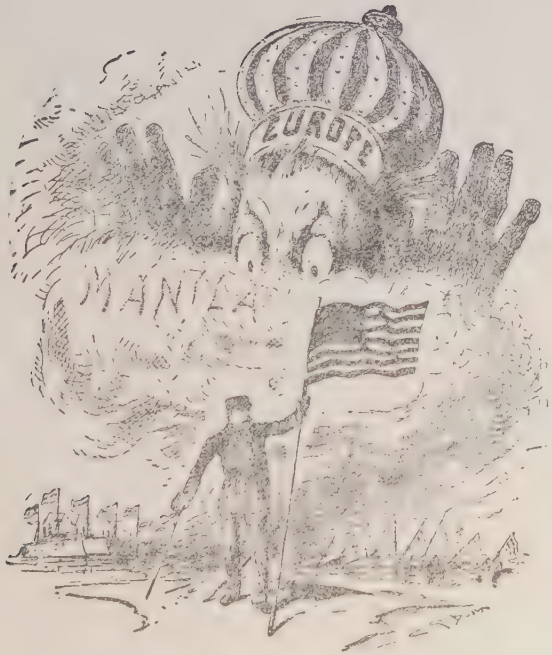
imitative faculty, but not the inventive. Of an extremely mercurial temperament, quick of temper and rash of impulse, their mental processes are interfered with and warped by their varying sentiments, until such a thing as acting upon settled conclusions from logical deductions is not possible with them.

No better example of this could be given than that of their foolish attack on the Americans. Everything was going their way. The President had declared that he had taken the islands from Spain for the welfare of the people of the islands themselves, who were to be aided and taught to maintain a government of their own. They had adopted a constitution, and a commission had already been appointed to visit the Philippines and examine into their form of government and their success in administering it. Sentiment in the United States was crystallizing in favor of permitting them to attempt self-government, under American tutelage and protection. They were assured of all these things, but they were not able to grasp the situation nor to restrain themselves. Puffed up with their grossly exaggerated opinion of their ability as fighters, contemptuous of the fighting qualities of the Americans, who for half a year had remained quietly in Manila and permitted them to gather a large army, supply themselves with munitions of war, and collect taxes within a stone's throw of the Military Governor's headquarters, they would not brook delay, but undertook, by a sudden attack, not preceded by notice of hostilities, to drive the Americans into the sea, with results most unexpected and disastrous. Thus, by their own folly, in one day they sealed the fate of the constitution they had labored upon for three months.

There were no wiseheads among them to give them pause. "Old men for counsel and young men for war" is a saw they were not familiar with. There was among them no gray-haired statesmen, no "grand old man," no influential adviser rendered conservative by a long life as jurist, legislator, or executive. All the leaders in the movement for independence were young men, many of them scarcely past their majority, while the army was made up of boys and men mostly without family ties. Scores of their so-called soldiers were no taller than the guns they carried. Aguinaldo himself, the President and putative head of the revolutionary movement, was under thirty years of age. Most of his Generals and lesser officers were still younger.

The National Assembly which framed and adopted the constitution

and elected the President—for neither of these propositions was submitted to a vote of the people—was composed of men equally immature. When men of unripe judgment, swayed by the passions and impulses of youth, and untutored in the broad philosophy of history, both command the army and sit in the council chamber, no better result than what has been seen could be expected.



Dewey's eye-opener.—New York World.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

STORY OF AMERICAN EXPANSION.

ALMOST THREE MILLION SQUARE MILES OF TERRITORY ADDED TO THE ORIGINAL THIRTEEN STATES—HOW ANNEXATION HAS BEEN CARRIED OUT BY CONQUEST AND PURCHASE.

ROM the time the American Colonists wrested the thirteen original States from Great Britain the history of the United States has been a continued story of national expansion. The annexation of the Hawaiian Islands and the cession of the Philippines, Porto Rico and Guam by Spain constitute the latest but possibly not the last chapters in that history of national growth.

By the treaty of Sept. 3, 1783, between Great Britain and the United States, the area in square miles of the latter was fixed at 827,844. By the charters of these States their nominal boundaries extended to the Pacific Ocean, but in reality they ceased at the Mississippi, for west of "the father of waters" sovereignty was vested in Spain by reason of discovery and settlement.

Emigrants soon crossed the Alleghanies and began to fill up the Mississippi Valley. It then became apparent that the United States must have more territory in order to make proper provision for her growing population. It was the fixed policy of Spain to exclude all foreign commerce from the Mississippi, and in 1780-2 she refused to enter into a treaty with the United States because Minister Joy demanded free navigation of the Mississippi. It was a vexatious question how easy means of communication should be afforded between the older States and the pioneer settlements, and Spain's refusal to concede free navigation led Washington to devise a canal scheme, which, however, became unnecessary, for in 1795 the coveted treaty was negotiated. Spain having exhausted herself in wars with the French Republic,

alarmed concerning hostile expeditions directed against New Orleans, and not unmindful of the demands of the large and growing population of the Mississippi Valley, entered into a treaty of friendship, boundaries and navigation with the United States. The important articles of that treaty were as follows:

"Article 4. His Catholic majesty has likewise agreed that the navigation of the said river, (Mississippi) in its whole breadth, from its source to the ocean, shall be free only to his subjects and the citizens of the United States, unless he should extend this privilege to the subjects of other powers by special convention."

"Article 22. And in consequence of the stipulations contained in the fourth article, his Catholic majesty will permit the citizens of the United States, for the space of three years from this time, to deposit their merchandise and effects in the port of New Orleans, and to export them from thence without paying any other duty than a fair price for the hire of the stores; and his majesty promises, either to continue this permission, if he finds during that time that it is not prejudicial to the interests of Spain, or, if he should agree not to continue it there, he will assign to them, on another part of the banks of the Mississippi, an equivalent establishment."

The next move toward national expansion was when Spain by the third article of the secret treaty of St. Ildefonso, Oct. 1, 1800, retroceded to France the great province of Louisiana, which then covered that vast area from the source to the mouth of the Mississippi, and thence west to the Pacific Ocean. It had been ceded to Spain in 1763 as war indemnity.

President Jefferson was not pleased with the retrocession. On April 18, 1802, he wrote Robert R. Livingston, Minister to France, as follows:

"The cession of Louisiana and the Floridas by Spain to France works most sorely on the United States. It completely reverses all the political relations of the United States, and will form a new epoch in our political course. There is on the globe one single spot the possessor of which is our natural and habitual enemy. It is New Orleans, through which the produce of three-eighths of our territory must pass to market. France, placing herself in that door, assumes to us the attitude of defiance and seals the union of two nations who, in conjunction, can maintain exclusive possession of the ocean. From that moment we must marry ourselves to the British fleet and nation, and make the first can-

non which shall be fired in Europe the signal for tearing up any settlement she may have made."

As a result of the retrocession, Spain abrogated that portion of the treaty with the United States giving the latter right of deposit at New Orleans, and did not name any other place.

This aroused the National Congress, and James Ross, Senator from Pennsylvania, introduced a resolution authorizing the President to call out 50,000 militia and take possession of New Orleans. Ross' resolution failed of passage, but in its stead Congress appropriated $2,000,000 for the purchase of New Orleans. On Jan. 10, 1803, the President sent James Monroe as minister extraordinary, with discretionary powers, to co-operate with Minister Livingston in the work of negotiating a cession.

Fortunately for the United States, a war was brewing between England and France, which if it once began would make Louisiana a worthless possession to France by reason of the superiority of the British navy. Napoleon could foresee this as quickly and clearly as anyone, and he was prompt to take advantage of the situation. Accordingly, when Minister Livingston made him an offer for New Orleans alone, he invited our minister to make an offer for the entire territory of Louisiana. This was on April 11, 1803. The next day Monroe arrived in Paris and held a consultation with Livingston.

They decided to offer $10,000,000, which offer was accordingly made, and after some negotiation the price was fixed at $15,000,000. Three-fourths of this amount was to be paid in cash and the remainder to be discharged by the United States assuming claims of American citizens against France.

The treaty was signed April 30, 1803, by Livingston and Monroe on behalf of the United States, and by Barbe-Marbois on behalf of France.

The important articles of the treaty are as follows:

"Article 1. Whereas, by article the third of the treaty concluded at St. Ildefonso, the 9th Vende'miaire, An 9 (Oct. 1, 1800), between the First Consul of the French Republic and his Catholic majesty, it was agreed as follows: His Catholic majesty promises and engages on his part, to retrocede to the French Republic, six months after the full and entire execution of the conditions and stipulations herein relative to his Royal Highness the Duke of Parma, the colony or province of Louisiana, with the same extent that it now has in the hands of Spain, and that it had when France possessed it; and such as it should be after the

treaties subsequently entered into between Spain and other States; and Whereas, in pursuance of the treaty, and particularly of the third article, the French Republic has an incontestable title to the domain and to the possession of the said territory: The First Consul of the French Republic, desiring to give to the United States a strong proof of his friendship, doth hereby cede to the said United States, in the name of the French Republic, forever and in full sovereignty, the said territory, with all its rights and appurtenances, as fully and in the same manner as they have been acquired by the French Republic in virtue of the above mentioned treaty concluded with his Catholic majesty."

"Article 3. The inhabitants of the ceded territory shall be incorporated in the union of the United States, and admitted as soon as possible, according to the principles of the Federal Constitution, to the enjoyment of all the rights, advantages and immunities of citizens of the United States; and in the meantime they shall be maintained and protected in the free enjoyment of their liberty, property and the religion which they profess."

This treaty gave rise to a bitter political controversy in the United States. The Federalists attacked its constitutionality. Jefferson offered no public defense, but statesmen were not lacking to perform that task. Probably the best explanation Jefferson ever made of the matter is contained in one of his private letters, in which he says:

"The constitution has made no provision for our holding foreign territory, still less for incorporating foreign nations into our union. The Executive, in seizing the fugitive occurrence which so much advances the good of their country, have done an act beyond the constitution. The legislature, in casting behind them metaphysical subtleties, and risking themselves like faithful servants, must ratify and pay for it, and throw themselves on their country for doing for them, unauthorized, what we know they would have done for themselves had they been in a situation to do it. It is the case of a guardian, investing the money of his ward in purchasing an important adjacent territory, and saying to him when of age, 'I did this for your good; I pretend to no right to bind you; you may disavow me and I must get out of the scrape as I can; I thought it my duty to risk myself for you."

But the controversy in the United States was as nothing to the consternation the treaty created in Spain. The Spanish cabinet perceived that it had committed an irreparable fault in sacrificing the safety of

Mexico. Florida was inclosed on both sides by the United States and separated from the other Spanish possessions. It was certain that it would easily fall into the hands of the United States on the first occasion.

It is supposed that the treaty of St. Ildefonso had a secret clause that France should not alienate Louisiana, and that Napoleon with characteristic contempt for treaty observance had broken it. Spain filed a protest against the treaty and became so offensive in her attitude as to justify a declaration of war, which, however, was not made. It was agreed that ratifications should be exchanged before October 30, 1803. Congress convened October 17, and the treaty was confirmed by the Senate on October 19. A resolution to give effectiveness to the treaty was passed in the House October 25, by a vote of 90 to 25, after an acrimonious debate, and after the Federalists had exhausted their powers of opposition.

By the acquisition of Louisiana the United States gained 1,171,931 square miles of territory, comprising Alabama and Mississippi south of parallel 31 degrees; all of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Nebraska and Oregon; the entire territories of Dakota, Washington, Idaho and Montana; the State of Minnesota west of the Mississippi, and Kansas except the southwest part south of the Arkansas; Colorado and the territory of Wyoming east of the Rocky Mountains and Indian territory.

While Oregon and the Pacific coast territory is generally included in the accounts of the Louisiana purchase, they really came into the possession of the United States through the exploration of Lewis and Clark, and the settlement of the boundary dispute with Great Britain through what is known as the Ashburton treaty.

The next step in American expansion was taken February 22, 1819, when Spain ceded 59,268 square miles, known as Florida, to the United States as payment of American claims against Spain, amounting to $5,000,000. Spain had come in possession of this territory in 1783 through a treaty with Great Britain. She therefore claimed that Florida was not included in the Louisiana purchase, because she could not retrocede to France what France had not ceded to her prior to 1763, and that she had no intention of retroceding this territory by the treaty of 1800.

The claims of the United States were that Spain's retrocession and France's cession of Louisiana included Florida, but to avoid war with

Spain this claim was not forcibly asserted until 1810, when Governor Claiborne, of Orleans Territory, took possession of West Florida.

In 1813, General Wilkinson captured Mobile Fort and City. In 1814 General Andrew Jackson drove the British from Pensacola and restored the place to Spanish authorities. The Seminole war in 1818 demonstrated to Spain that Florida was completely at the mercy of the United States, and the result was the treaty of February 22, 1819, but which treaty was not ratified until 1821. This treaty determined the western boundary of Louisiana as follows: "Beginning at the mouth of the Sabine in the Gulf of Mexico; up the west bank of the Sabine to the 32d degree north latitude; thence north to the Red River; along the south bank of the Red River to the 100th degree of longitude east from Greenwich; thence north to the Arkansas; thence along the south bank of the Arkansas to its source; thence south, or north, as the case might be, to the 42d degree of north latitude, and along that parallel to the Pacific."

By this treaty the United States yielded its claims to Texas and the Rio Grande as the western boundary.

The acquisition of Texas was an inevitable result of the annexation of Louisiana and Florida. The United States had surrendered its claim to this territory by the treaty of 1819. When Mexico's revolt became successful, "Texas and Coahuila" became one of the states of the Mexican Republic. The story of the Texan revolution is too long and too well known to be repeated here except in outline.

After unsuccessful efforts to secure the territory by purchase, both by Clay and Van Buren, Texas declared her independence and seceded March 2, 1836. The war which followed was brief, but bloody.

The massacre at the Alamo and the battle of San Jacinto are as famous as Concord and Lexington. In March, 1837, the United States recognized the independence of Texas, and in August of the same year the Texan minister at Washington made application for the annexation of the Texas Republic to the United States.

From 1837 to 1845 the question of the admission of Texas constituted the principal issue between the existing political parties.

Andrew Jackson favored annexation and strongly urged it in 1843, but the Democratic convention, which that year was postponed until May, 1844, nominated Van Buren, who openly declared against it, as did Clay, the leading candidate of the Whigs. An annexation treaty was

concluded by Calhoun April 12, 1844, but it was rejected by the Senate.

The election of Polk was taken as a popular indorsement of Texas annexation, and on January 25, 1845, a joint resolution was passed by the lower house of Congress consenting to annexation and setting final action on or before January 1, 1846.

June 18 the Texas Congress voted unanimously for annexation, which action was ratified July 4 by a convention of the people.

The joint resolution in the American Congress admitting Texas as a state was passed as follows: In the House, December 16, 1845, by a vote of 141 to 56; in the Senate, December 22, 1845, by a vote of 31 to 13.

The Senate amendments to the joint resolution of January 25, 1845, authorized the President if he should deem it advisable to first make a treaty of annexation with Texas, but no such treaty was ever made.

It will thus be seen that annexation by treaty, which had first been exercised in 1803, and the constitutionality of which had been questioned, had, by the annexation of Texas, eventuated into annexation without treaty.

The annexation of Texas added 376,133 square miles of territory to the United States.

During the Mexican War, an American land force under General Stephen Watts Kearney conquered and held the territory of New Mexico, including Utah, Nevada, and a large part of Colorado and Arizona. At the same time a land force under General John C. Fremont, aided by a naval force under Commodore Stockton, conquered and held upper California. Indeed the principal object of the war had been the acquisition by force or purchase of a liberal tract of Mexican territory as "indemnity for the past and security for the future."

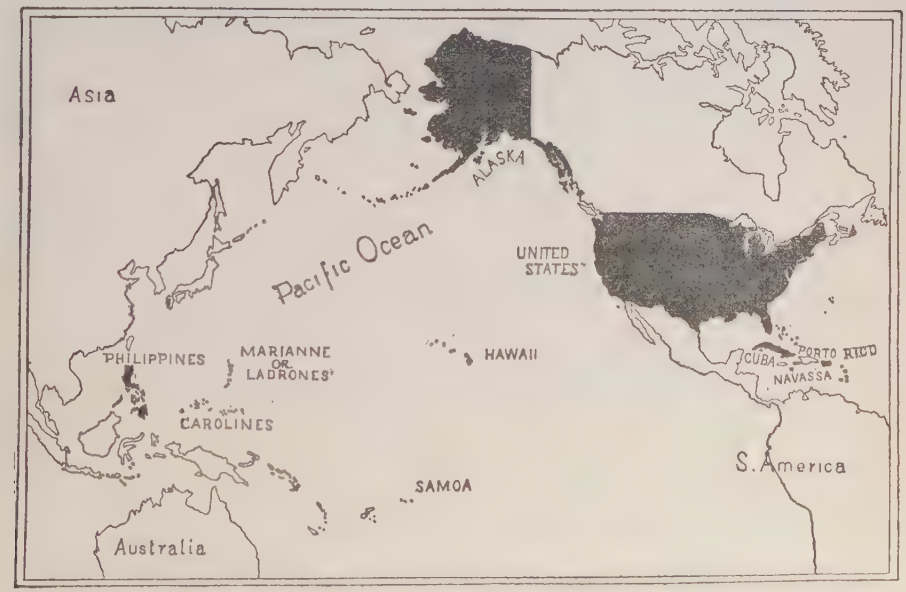
The final object of the war was accomplished through what is known as the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, February 2, 1848, signed by Nicholas Trist on behalf of the United States, and by three commissioners on behalf of Mexico.

By the terms of this treaty the above named territory was ceded to the United States, for which this country paid $15,000,000 and assumed claims of American citizens against Mexico to the further amount of $3,250,000. The annexed territory included that part of New Mexico east of the Rio Grande River which was claimed by Texas, and for which the United States afterward paid Texas $10,000,000. The treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was ratified by the Senate, March 10, 1848, and

added 545,783 square miles of territory to the expanding United States.

But the dispute with Mexico was not ended. The fruitful Mesilla Valley in what is now southern Arizona was a source of contention, and five years later Santa Ana marched an army into the disputed territory, prepared to renew hostilities. The matter was settled, however, without resort to arms, and the disputed territory was obtained through what is known as the Gadsden Treaty or Gadsden Purchase, so called on account of its negotiator. The price paid was $10,000,000, and besides the annexed territory the United States acquired the right of transit for troops, mail and merchandise, across the isthmus of Tehuantepec. The Gadsden treaty bears date of December 30, 1853, and added 45,535 square miles to United States territory.

The last acquisition of territory by the United States previous to the war with Spain was Alaska, which was purchased from Russia, March 30, 1867, for $7,200,000. The ceded territory embracing the whole of Alaska added 577,390 square miles to United States domain.



OUTLINE MAP SHOWING THE TERRITORY OF GREATER AMERICA.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

LIFE OF ADMIRAL GEORGE DEWEY.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS IN THE CAREER OF AMERICA'S GREAT NAVAL HERO---HIS BOYHOOD DAYS IN VERMONT AND HIS CAREER IN THE CIVIL WAR—AN EARLY RISER, A BORN FIGHTER AND A POLISHED GENTLEMAN.

ERY many men owe their success in life to the habit of early rising. In Vermont as in other New England States it is a chief characteristic of the people. The farmers, who constitute the backbone of the American nation, furnish the best proof that the man who is up bright and early has a big advantage over his stay-a-bed neighbor.

It fell to the lot of Commodore (now Admiral) George Dewey to prove that this is as true in the navy as on the farm.

At daybreak, May 1, in Manila bay, the drowsy Spaniards of Admiral Montojo's fleet tumbled out of their hammocks half awake and half asleep to meet a wide awake foe who had important work to do, and in the characteristic fashion of the active American, had decided to begin the task before breakfast.

Many an American farmer has a half day's work done before the welcome notes of the breakfast horn summon him from the field, and on that May morning Admiral Dewey had the Spanish fleet more than half whipped before he retired to partake of his morning meal. Then he returned to the task and finished his work in true American fashion.

Admiral George Dewey, who so rudely roused the Dons from their dreams of conquest to the stern realities of a close fought fight, was born in Montpelier, Vermont, December 26, 1837.

He belongs to the ninth generation of the Dewey family which came from Sandwich, England, with the Massachusetts Bay Colony to Dor-

chester in 1633. His grandfather, Simeon Dewey, was born in Hanover, New Hampshire, more than 100 years ago. He located on a farm at Berlin, Vt., about four miles from Montpelier, and it was there that the Admiral's father, Dr. Julius Gemano Dewey, was born, in 1801.

Admiral Dewey's father was of that sturdy stock which breeds the highest type of Americans. He was a man of intense religious convictions, but a thorough master of himself. Early in life he learned how to control his temper, and none of his children ever saw him angry. As a result all of his acts were characterized by coolness and determination, traits which were transmitted to the son, and which have helped him to achieve the distinction of the foremost living naval hero.

The elder Dewey was a poor lad, but having received a fair education, he taught school in Montpelier and saved enough of his salary to enable him to take a course in medicine and secure a diploma. He made a success of his chosen profession from the start, and soon became one of the most popular practitioners in the state.

Dr. Dewey loved children and was a great favorite among them. His favorites, of course, were his own, of whom there were four: Charles, Edward, George and Mary, all by his first wife, who before marriage was Miss Mary Perrin. Mrs. Dewey died when the present admiral was but five years of age, and her funeral was the first one that took place from the Christ Episcopal Church in Montpelier, which had been founded by Dr. Dewey.

It was prophetic of the future that Dr. Dewey's favorite title for his son George was "my little hero." It is also indicative of the fact that the heroism which distinguished George Dewey in the civil war and at the battle of Manila was a characteristic of his childhood. Dr. Dewey lived long enough to see his estimate of "the little hero" partly justified, for it is recorded that in a conversation with the great Farragut, the admiral, seizing the doctor's hand, said: "Sir, your son George is a worthy and a brave officer. He has an honorable record and some day will make his own mark."

The boyhood life of George Dewey was much the same as that of other boys reared in New England villages. He was no better, and in some respects was a little worse than the average village boy, for his high spirits, hardy frame and daring courage often led him to play pranks and engage in boyish mischief from which more timid and quieter lads would have shrunk in fear.

An illustration of this is recorded of his school days when as the leader of the Washington County Grammar School he defied the authority of the teacher, Mr. Z. K. Pangborn. The teacher, who afterward won the title of Major, and at the time of the battle of Manila was editor of the Jersey City Journal, narrates how his pupils mutinied with young George Dewey at their head.

Dewey was ordered to come from his seat and make an explanation of his conduct. This he refused to do. Teacher Pangborn then took the future admiral by the collar and chastised him as he was never chastised before nor since. Dewey made the best resistance possible, but when the affray was over his back was striped by the rod and he was ordered to go home, the teacher accompanying him.

When the matter was explained to Dr. Dewey he told the future admiral that he deserved the punishment he had received, and that he, the doctor, would add a little on his own account if George still thought he had not had enough.

The admiral himself has also narrated this stirring incident of his boyhood and said his thanks were due to Major Pangborn for the valuable lesson he learned from it.

Among the admiral's schoolmates was a boy named Wright, now a prominent preacher in Montpelier. When Mr. Wright read of Dewey's victory in Manila bay, he exclaimed: "Well, George always was a fighting boy."

George Dewey's favorite playmate was his sister Mary. It was Mary who trudged with him on his tramps over the Vermont hills and along the streams, for the coming admiral was a great fisherman. Still later in life, when the embryo admiral was deep in the "Life of Hannibal," it was Mary who played the part of the army and followed the young Hannibal over the Alps, which in this instance was a huge snowbank specially constructed for the purpose. "Hannibal" escaped without serious consequences, but "the army" had a week's illness as a result of her devotion.

Probably the greatest incongruity between the character of George Dewey the boy and Admiral Dewey the man is found in the boy's love for theatricals. Admiral Dewey is noted for his extreme modesty and his dislike for anything savoring of theatrical effect, but the boy George Dewey converted his father's barn into a theater where he gave minstrel shows and hair-raising dramatic performances for the delectation of

Montpelier youth. George always played the part of the hero, and he usually had a part which required him to shoot the villain or slay him with a sword. On these occasions Dewey was not only the principal actor, but he was the proprietor, manager, stage manager, and also ran a peanut stand at the entrance.

One of the boyhood adventures of the future admiral was in wrecking his father's buggy in the Dog River and barely escaping with his life. He was accompanied by a boy named Will Redfield, and when they reached the river, they found it higher than it had ever before been known. Redfield wanted to turn back, but Dewey was not any more frightened by the roaring, swollen river than he was by the torpedoes in Corregidor inlet or the frowning forts that guarded its entrance. He decided to cross, and he succeeded in getting across, but when he emerged upon the opposite bank he was calmly seated astride of the horse, while the greater part of the doctor's buggy was floating rapidly down the Dog River.

Dewey entered the Norwich (Vermont) Military Academy at the age of fifteen, and two years later entered the Naval Academy at Annapolis, joining the class of '54. At Annapolis Dewey had several personal encounters with cadets, and in each instance it is recorded that he came off victor. Once he was challenged by a Southern cadet to fight a duel with pistols. The cadet had been soundly thrashed by Dewey for calling him a "dough face." The challenge was promptly, even keenly accepted, the weapons were selected, and the ground paced off, when some officers who had heard of the affair appeared upon the scene and put an end to it.

Cadet Dewey graduated in 1858, standing fifth in his class. He was by no means the most studious member of his class, but he excelled in seamanship. During his term as midshipman he served on the European station, and cruised for two years in the Mediterranean on the Wabash with Captain Barron, a Virginian, who afterward served in the Confederate navy. He was examined for a commission in 1860, leading all competitors, and receiving a final rating of three in his class.

When the Civil War broke out Dewey was at home in Vermont. He at once secured his commission and was assigned to duty on the steam sloop Mississippi of the West Gulf squadron. This vessel was commanded by Melancthon Smith, and the part she played in the Civil War, including her destruction while running the batteries at Port

Hudson, is a matter of history. The first battle in which the Mississippi was engaged was with the batteries of St. Philip and Jackson, the lower defenses of New Orleans. Students of history know how the larger vessels of Farragut's fleet were unloaded and hauled over the bar, and how on the night of April 23, 1862, they were prepared to run the batteries and conquer the Confederate fleet. The Mississippi was the third in line of the first division, and the only side-wheeler in the fleet. The night was dark, and all lights on the ships were out, just as they were when Dewey's Asiatic squadron steamed past the forts on Corregidor Island. Hugging the shore to avoid the current, the sloops of war steamed on until directly opposite the forts, when the guns belched a broadside at the forts and were answered in kind. On the bridge of the Mississippi stood Lieutenant George Dewey, as calm and imperturbable as he was when as a commodore he stood on the bridge of the Olympia and directed the destruction of Admiral Montojo's squadron.

Commander Smith was pacing from port to starboard, not entirely sure of his ground, but trusting much to his lieutenant.

"Do you know the channel, Dewey?" he asked.

The twenty-four-year-old lieutenant who didn't know the channel any better than Smith knew it, and who afterward confessed that he expected to ground every minute, answered in a confident and reassuring tone:

"Yes, sir."

Dewey's part in that battle is well described by Chief Engineer Baird, who was an eye witness of his conduct:

"I can see him now in the red and yellow glare flung from the cannon-mouths. It was like some terrible thunder storm with almost incessant lightning. For an instant all would be dark and Dewey unseen.

"Then the forts would belch forth, and there he was away up in the midst of it, the flames from the guns almost touching him and the big shot and shell passing near enough to him to blow him over with their breath, while he held firmly to the bridge-rail. Every time the dark came back I felt sure that we would never see Dewey again.

"But at the next flash there he stood. His hat was blown off, and his eyes were aflame. But he gave orders with the air of a man in thorough command of himself. He took in everything.

"He saw a point of advantage and seized it at once. And when

from around the hull of the Pensacola the rebel ram darted, Dewey, like a flash, saw what was best to be done, and as he put his knowledge into words, the head of the Mississippi fell off, and as the ram came up alongside the entire starboard broadside plunged a mass of iron shot and shell through her armor and she began to sink. Her crew ran her ashore and escaped.

"A boat's crew from our ship went on board, thinking to extinguish the flames which our broadside had started and capture her, but she was too far gone. Dewey took us all through the fight, and in a manner which won the warmest praise, not only of all on board, but of Farragut himself. He was cool from first to last, and after we had passed the forts and reached safety and he came down from the bridge, his face was black with smoke, but there wasn't a drop of perspiration on his brow."

A year later Lieutenant Dewey participated in the battle at Port Hudson, where the Mississippi was sunk. It is characteristic of Dewey, the fighting admiral, that he was the last man to leave the sinking ship.

The attempt to run this battery was led by Farragut's flagship, the Hartford. Two vessels of the fleet got aground, but were floated again after much difficulty. When directly opposite the fort the Mississippi struck a snag and stuck, and the fire of the battery was concentrated upon her. An idea may be had of the terrific rain of shot and shell when it is stated that she was hit two hundred and fifty times in half an hour. Her officers, who left in a boat for the Richmond, did not return, and it devolved upon Captain Smith and Lieutenant Dewey to get off the crew, which they did. Finally Dewey and the captain were the only two remaining souls on board. The Mississippi was on fire in five places and sinking, but they were not willing to leave as long as there was any hope of saving her. Lieutenant Dewey made a tour of investigation. He got as far as the ward room and returned with the tails burnt off his coat. Then he and Captain Smith left the vessel.

Lieutenant Dewey was given command of a gunboat which Farragut used as a dispatch boat, and while in this position saw a great deal of the famous admiral, who would come aboard and use the vessel to reconnoiter. He was at Donaldsonville, and for a short time was in command of the Monongahela after her captain was killed.

He was first lieutenant on the Colorado at Fort Fisher under Commodore Henry Knox Thatcher, and distinguished himself by silencing

a portion of the battery, for which he was highly complimented by the commodore, who recommended him to the consideration of Admiral Porter, and also recommended him to the navy department for promotion to fleet captain. This was not done, but he was shortly thereafter promoted to be lieutenant commander.

For two years after the war he served on the European station, first on the Kearsarge, and then on the Colorado. Upon his return he was married to Miss Susy Goodwin, daughter of Governor Ichabod Goodwin, of New Hampshire. One son was the result of this union, George Goodwin Dewey, born in 1872, the year his mother died. The son graduated from Princeton and began a business career in New York City.

From 1868 to 1870 Lieutenant Commander Dewey was attached to the navy department. In the latter year he was given his first full command, the Narragansett. In 1875 he was promoted to the rank of commander and assigned to duty on the light-house board, and later was sent to the Asiatic squadron in command of the Juniata. In 1884 he was made a captain and given command of the Dolphin, one of the first vessels of the new navy.

In 1885 he was assigned to the Pensacola, the flagship of the European squadron. From 1888 until he was sent to the Asiatic squadron as commodore, he performed shore duty, among other positions having been Chief of the Bureau of Equipment, and when promoted to the rank of commodore was also made president of the Board of Inspection and Survey.

The commodore welcomed his assignment to the Asiatic squadron, as his health had not been good. The year following the battle of Manila was a trying one for him, as he had to perform many delicate diplomatic duties.

Personally Admiral Dewey was a popular man among his acquaintances before his great victory gave him world-wide popularity. He is rather reserved with strangers, but very affable with friends. He is fond of music and pictures, but his reading has been largely of books relating to his profession. He has always been known as a tactician, and has mastered all the details of the naval profession.

Admiral Dewey has the reputation of being one of the best dressed men in the American navy. He is always spick and span and insists upon his men and ships being kept in the same condition.

CHAPTER XL.

FIGHTING THE FILIPINOS.

AGUINALDO, THE INSURGENT LEADER, IN REBELLION—THE BATTLES OF MANILA AND CALOOCAN—CAPTURE OF ILOILO AND BURNING OF MANILA.

WHEN the American forces landed in the Philippines they were given a hearty welcome by the Filipinos, whom they treated as friends and allies. After the peace protocol had been signed, Aguinaldo, the Filipino insurgent leader, who had been taken back to the islands from Hong Kong by Admiral Dewey, sent commissioners to Paris and Washington for the purpose of obtaining recognition from the peace commission and President McKinley of absolute independence of the Philippines. Aguinaldo's attitude at this time, while not openly hostile, was far from friendly, and when it became evident that the United States would insist upon the cession of the islands to the American government it required great diplomacy and forbearance on the part of the American commanders to avoid an open conflict with the native troops. A clash was inevitable, however, and it came on the night of Saturday, February 4th. Two battles were the result—one in Manila and its suburbs and the other at Caloocan, a town to the north.

Splendid descriptions of these two battles were published by John F. Boss, a correspondent with the American forces. At the beginning of the engagement Mr. Boss was wounded in the wrist, but he continued writing his report, which is as follows:

When hostilities were opened the American army encircled Manila in two divisions, the First Brigade of the First Division being under command of Brigadier-General King, and the Second being commanded by Brigadier-General Ovenshine. The lines extended from the sea along the line of Spanish blockhouses to the Pasig River, in Samapaloo. The Second Division, under General McArthur, with the First Brigade,

commanded by Brigadier-General Harrison G. Otis, and the Second Brigade, by Brigadier-General Hale, occupied a position to the north of the city from Pasig River to the sea.

The most extreme point inland occupied by American troops was the camp of the Nebraska Regiment at Santo Mesa, where the first fighting began at 8:45 o'clock last Saturday evening. The Nebraska outposts challenged and fired on an insurgent company which was advancing into the neutral zone.

It was not long before the entire insurgent line on the north of the city began a heavy fusillade. The charge was concentrated on the Nebraska camp, which became untenable. Orders were given for the regiment to open fire. Springfields flamed in the half moon all about the camp. The enemy's Mausers gave no flash.

At 4 o'clock Sunday morning, with the shout, "Viva la republica!" the Filipinos tried to rush across the bridge over a road leading to the waterworks, opposite the American camp. One company of Nebraska men met the advancing insurgents at the bridge and drove them back. Twice the Filipinos, with indomitable pluck, charged upon the bridge again, but they were driven back each time.

Lieutenant Webb, of Battery A, stationed on Mesa Hill, prayed for daylight, and when dawn came two guns of the Utah battery opened fire so near to the firing line that two men were killed at once.

The plan for the Second Division was to sweep forward and carry a high position held by the enemy north of the Pasig River. The Colorado Volunteers, under command of Colonel Mecoy, rushed blockhouses No. 4 and No. 6, and the villages beyond San Juan bridge were cleared with shrapnel. The Nebraska men made their way over the bridge, crouching in pairs, amid the hissing and pattering of bullets.

On the other side they were met with a surge of lead from the steep hill of San Juan. But they were followed closely by two Nordenfeldts, under charge of Lieutenant Gibbs. As these rumbled over the bridge a battalion of Tennessee troops approached and quickly followed across in columns of four, under fire. Colonel Smith fell from his horse and died of apoplexy at the moment of the charge.

Up the hill the artillery and infantry scrambled, digging with their hands and feet. Nothing could stand before them. It was a grand sight.

At 12 o'clock noon our men took the reservoirs at the top of the hill. Further to the left, on the heights, was Binando Church. In order

to take this the Americans did not have to advance up a steep incline, but could make a gradual ascent over two miles of rough country. Barbed wire impeded their advance.

The Utah guns followed the advance of the troops step by step to clear the way. The Third Artillery moved along dikes through a cul de sac, with swamps on either side, and got into the open, losing twenty-five men. Two batteries then swung to the right, under Captain O'Hara, going into the open like veterans, and drove from the Chinese Church the insurgents who were pouring a cutting fire on the Montana and Pennsylvania troops while they were coming up the hill through a cemetery toward Binando Church.

Colonel Frost, commanding the South Dakota Regiment, swung that body around from the left and carried two insurgent redoubts, where thirty insurgents were killed. The South Dakota and a part of the Pennsylvania troops then took the Binando Church.

The Concord, from the bay, shelled the woods near the shore, and the Kansas men, followed by the Montana troops and supported by one gun, moved on Saturday night along the Caloocan road. The enemy charged them six times, coming within 100 yards, but they were steadily pushed back until by Sunday night the American line had advanced three miles. Thus, all along the Second Division had little difficulty in driving the enemy, who fought well behind trenches, but, once dislodged, fled in panic.

Against the First Division, south of the city, perhaps the fighting was hardest. The insurgents showed wonderful pluck, under the command of General Noviel.

During Saturday night everything was quiet, but at 7:30 o'clock on Sunday morning from Artillery Knoll—General Anderson's headquarters—the Sixth Artillery opened fire, and from the bay to blockhouse No. 14—where the American troops entered Manila—the ground was held by the North Dakota Regiment and the Fourteenth Infantry.

The Monadnock, from her place in the bay, pounded the insurgents with her big guns.

Captain Murphy, in command of the Fourteenth Battalion, began fighting at 8 o'clock in the morning. So stubborn was the resistance at this point that he only succeeded in taking blockhouse No. 14, 400 yards distant, at 2 o'clock in the afternoon.

The line of the First Division on Sunday night extended from the bay at Pasay to the Pasig River, at San Pedro and Macati. Further

inland our line ran along the stream to Triega. Three miles in front was an open country. One and a half miles diagonally across the line Colonel Smith, with three companies of California troops, one Washington and four Wyoming companies, was ordered to advance toward San Pedro and Macati. General King was to move forward as soon as Colonel Smith came opposite.

The troops waded the stream and marched into the open as if they were on drill. From the stone houses, nipa huts and earthworks the natives poured bullets upon the Americans, while Battery D of the Sixth Artillery, Dyer's and Hawthorne's separate Montana Battery continued to shell the enemy magnificently over the heads of the advancing troops.

At San Pedro and Macati the position of the insurgents seemed impregnable, but Lieutenant Haven, of Company A, engineer corps, forced a way back of the town, and by plucky work made the position untenable for the enemy.

This place is called "Bloody Lane" by the Spaniards.

Lieutenant Michael fell, crying: "Never mind me; go on!"

Lieutenant Miles then took the lead. One hundred yards from the blockhouse the fire was so hot he called for volunteers, and with eight men he took it, the insurgents going out as his men went in.

General Ovenshine was ordered to dislodge the enemy in Murphy's front. He formed a brigade of the Fourteenth Infantry on the right of Murphy's position, with volunteers on the right of the Fourteenth Infantry, and Troops E, C and L, of the Fourth Cavalry, dismounted, on the left of Murphy's men.

All the men to the right of Murphy's position wheeled to the left across an open field till a thicket was reached. Then they opened fire and the enemy finally was dislodged. The engagement was hot, but the fire of our men was irresistible.

General Ovenshine, with his brigade, then proceeded to Pasay, which he entered without resistance.

Washington troops swam the estuary under fire, and later the Idaho troops, with one company of Washington men, swept the insurgents toward the left.

One hundred of the Filipinos jumped into the Pasig River, but only twenty succeeded in getting across the stream.

The village was burned on every side to dislodge the guerrillas. The smoke of fire and battle encircled the city.

An improvised river gunboat, with Captain Randolph, of the Third Artillery, commanding, riddled Santa Ana with its guns. The Idaho troops charged the bastion fort, and Major McConville was killed. The Krupp guns were captured. Sixty-five dead insurgents were found in one heap. The rice fields were dotted with dead and wounded Filipinos. The hospital corps did splendid work for both friend and enemy.

The insurgents, once dislodged, ran miles back into the country, all along the line swept by the First Division.

On Monday afternoon the Nebraska battalions, the Twenty-third Infantry and the Tennessee troops, General Hale commanding, with four guns, under Major Young, of Utah, swept the country for four miles to the pumping station. They shelled the insurgents from hill to hill. At the foot of the second hill was found the stripped body of Dr. Young, of Utah, who rode through the lines by mistake. His horse had been shot and twelve empty revolver cartridges were found by his side.

The insurgents retired, firing as they went, and at 5 o'clock in the afternoon on Monday the pumping station had been taken. The cylinder heads had been removed by the insurgents, but they were found later in the coal works and are now in good condition.

On Tuesday General Anderson moved his left up to the Lagana Pasig, which surrendered.

CAPTURE OF CALOOCAN.

For several days train loads of insurgents were seen landing at Caloocan, north of Manila, and on Friday the Concord shelled the town. General MacArthur then sent the Kansas and Montana troops and the Third Artillery to take the place. In a splendid charge the Kansas men went through a jungle near shore.

The insurgents fought from tree to tree, but were steadily driven back by the heavy infantry fire. The Montana troops and the Third Artillery advanced into the open for two miles without shelter. The insurgents fired from the edge of the woods and the strong earthworks in Caloocan. Four guns of Battery A, Utah, and two guns of Dyer's Battery, under Lieutenant Fleming, shelled the position accurately, and under the splendid charge of the infantrymen the insurgents fled.

Lieutenant-Colonel Wallace was shot through the lungs, but he will recover.

Our men rushed in Caloocan with a shout. The American flag was

raised on the church at 5 o'clock in the afternoon. The insurgents fled in every direction, followed by enthusiastic American soldiers. Their charge could not be stopped until they had reached a point a mile beyond Caloocan. The town was burned to dislodge sharpshooters.

Our losses were three killed and thirty-eight wounded.

DRAMATIC INCIDENTS OF THE TWO BATTLES.

Other accounts of the two battles with the Filipinos furnish some dramatic incidents not contained in Mr. Boss' report.

In the engagement there were involved 33,000 men, of which number 13,000 were Americans and 20,000 natives. It is estimated that 2,000 Filipinos were slain, 3,500 were wounded, and 500 taken prisoners. They were slaughtered by the American fire, which was both deadly and accurate.

Among those who fought gallantly in the face of the American artillery fire was a tribe of natives known as Ygorotes, armed with bows and arrows. After the battle their chief was found in a hospital with a shattered thigh. He admitted that he never had seen modern artillery and was ignorant of its effects until he and his followers met the disastrous fire of Sunday morning. The chief is bitterly incensed against the Tagalos for placing the Ygorotes in front of the American battery, under the pretense that they were sent to occupy a post of honor, and he intimates that the Ygorotes will avenge this treachery when the survivors return north.

CAPTURE OF ILOILO.

The force under Brigadier-General M. D. Miller, which had been sent to the island of Panay, captured the principal seaport of Iloilo on Saturday, February 11th, assisted by warships from Admiral Dewey's squadron.

In the morning of that day General Miller sent an ultimatum to the commander of the rebels on shore, notifying him that it was his intention to take Iloilo, by force if necessary.

Noncombatants and foreigners were warned to leave the town within 24 hours. The rebels were also warned that they must make no further belligerent preparations.

The gunboat Petrel was then towed to a position close in shore

and near the rebel fort, while the cruiser Boston took up her station at the other end of the town. Friday passed quietly. During the day many refugees left the town of Iloilo. The majority of them were taken on board foreign ships lying in the harbor.

At 3 o'clock on the morning of Saturday, February 11th, the gunboat Petrel signaled to the cruiser Boston that the rebels were working in their trenches. In return the Petrel was ordered to fire warning shots upon the town from her 3-pounders. This was done, and the rebels replied with a harmless fusillade. The Boston and the Petrel then bombarded the rebels' trenches, completely clearing them of their occupants in a very short space of time.

Soon after the bombardment began, flames broke out simultaneously in various parts of the town. Thereupon 48 marines, acting as infantry and artillery, were landed from the cruiser Boston, and a company was sent ashore from the gunboat Petrel. These detachments marched straight into the town of Iloilo, and, hoisting the stars and stripes over the fort, took possession of the place in the name of the United States.

The capture of the town and its defenses having been accomplished, the marines and soldiers who had been sent ashore proceeded to the task of saving the American, English and German consulates from destruction by the fire which was raging among the frail and inflammable buildings of the town. The Swiss consul's residence, which was in the same row as the consulates named, was burned. The entire Chinese and native sections of the town were destroyed, but foreign mercantile property escaped with slight damage.

There was some desultory firing by the enemy in the outskirts of Iloilo, but not a single American was injured.

General Miller's force consisted of the Sixth United States Artillery, the Tennessee Volunteers and the Eighteenth United States Infantry.

MANILA ON FIRE.

The night of February 22d was one of terror for the residents of Manila. The rebels made good their oft-repeated threats to the extent of burning acres of buildings, wounding an officer and three men by firing through windows during the excitement.

At 8 o'clock an incendiary fire occurred in a block of brick buildings occupied by Chinese on the Calle La Coste, in the Santa Cruz dis-

trict. A stiff breeze was blowing, and the inflammability of the structures caused the blaze to spread with alarming rapidity.

Shortly after midnight another big fire was started in the Tondo district, where the natives are thickest, and when the firemen and soldiers attempted to work a regular fusillade of rifle and revolver shots was fired from the windows and roofs of the buildings.

The firemen, escorted by soldiers, proceeded to clean out the houses, while the fire was unheeded. The Thirteenth Minnesota was re-enforced by detachments from the Third Infantry, the Second Oregon, the Third Artillery and the Tenth Pennsylvania.

Bullets flew in every direction in almost every street in the Tondo and Binondo districts, causing the most intense excitement.

Captain Robinson, of Company C, Thirteenth Minnesota, and three men were wounded.

Many timid persons, imagining that the rebels had effected an entrance through the American lines and were advancing into the city, hurried frantically from the hotels and houses only to be stopped at the first corner by a guard. The sounding of a native bugle call, immediately preceding the firing, lent color to the story.

Thousands of Chinese crossed the bridges and plazas under fire, hurrying with their bundles to the Chinese consulate.

All night long the fire spread through the Tondo district, sweeping away rows of houses and devastating acres of territory.

The damage was inestimable.

With daylight punitive measures were decided upon, and the Americans, although tired after their sleepless night's work, soon cleared the district of every native after a slight resistance.

CHAPTER XLI.

CAPTURE OF FILIPINO CAPITAL.

GENERAL McARTHUR'S CAMPAIGN TO THE NORTH OF MANILA RESULTS IN FIERCE SKIRMISHES AND TWO PITCHED BATTLES—MALOLOS ABANDONED BY AGUINALDO AND THE INSURGENT ARMY SCATTERED.

FOLLOWING the events narrated in the foregoing chapter Major-General Otis inaugurated a general forward movement to the north with the idea of crushing the rebels in their stronghold of Malabon and ending the war with one decisive battle. McArthur's division was selected for this work and his advance was marked by a succession of skirmishes and the capture of every town between Manila and the rebel capital of Malolos. While many of these skirmishes were marked by exciting and dramatic incidents, the only engagements that could be dignified by the title of battles were those of Malabon and Malolos.

The former was fought on March 25. Eleven thousand of the pick of the American soldiers were arrayed on one side and practically the entire Filipino army on the other. The former moved out toward Malabon at daybreak in a line five miles long. Elaborate preparations were made for the movement. Gen. Wheaton's brigade was placed in the rear and Gen. Harrison Gray Otis' and Gen. Hall's were massed behind Gen. Hale's. Under the cover of the darkness Gen. Otis' and Gen. Hale's brigades left their trenches and advanced close upon the enemy's line without being detected, Gen. Wheaton's and Gen. Hall's brigade occupying the vacated positions.

At 4 o'clock the American troops breakfasted, and the Filipinos, noticing the camp fires, their buglers called to arms.

At daylight Gen. Otis' and Gen. Hall's brigade advanced from La

Loma church straight through the rebel lines, cutting the enemy's force in two.

Upon this occasion, the rebels adopted the American tactics of holding their fire until the attackers were about 1,000 yards distant. The rebels also fired lower than usual.

The United States troops drove the rebels straight up the valley, the Minnesota and Montana volunteers fighting like veterans, flanking them from the east.

The enemy occupied a crescent-shaped, heavily wooded position when the fighting began, but the Kansas and Montana and the Third artillery shelled them from their stronghold and forced them to fight in the open.

The movement of the American troops swept the insurgents back toward Malabon. The American troops advanced on the double-quick, yelling fiercely and occasionally dropping in the grass and firing by volley. The natives stood until the Americans were within 200 yards of their position and then broke and ran for the woods. Thirty of them were killed in the outskirts and 70 on the roads.

The Montana and Kansas troops met the hottest resistance in a strip from which the rebels have greatly worried the Americans recently during the night time.

Ninety minutes after the start—at 6 o'clock—the whole front for a distance of three miles to the north had been clear. Gen. Hale's brigade had simultaneously swept in a northwesterly direction, routing the enemy and burning the town of San Francisco Del Monte and a number of scattered huts. The line was then opposite Novaleche, the artillery advancing along a good road from La Loma to Novaleche, the wagons carrying pontoons, telegraph supplies, and ammunition following. The infantry moved in splendid order.

Smoke from the burning huts marked the line of the American advance. Ambulances and horse litters, led by Chinese, brought in the wounded, among whom were a few Filipinos.

The Americans who were wounded endured their injuries bravely, one group which had been brought into the hospital singing "Comrades."

The Pennsylvania troops took nine prisoners, among them a great naked captain of the Macabebee tribe and one Japanese. All the prisoners were greatly terrified, expecting to be executed immediately.

The Americans fired volleys with terrible effect and then rushed forward, cheering and carrying everything before them.

Once through, Gen. McArthur's division was swung to the left, driving the rebels away on all sides.

They captured the towns of Polo and Novaliches on the left and San Francisco de Monte and Mariquina on the right, clearing the rebel trenches in front of the line north from the river to Caloocan.

They also secured possession of the railroad, practically cornering the flower of Aguinaldo's army at Malabon and in the foothills at Singalon, 20 miles apart.

The troops engaged were the Third artillery, as infantry; the Montana, Kansas, Pennsylvania, Wyoming, Colorado, South Dakota, Minnesota, and Oregon volunteers, the Third, Fourth, Seventeenth, and Twenty-second regulars, the Utah artillery battalion, and Twenty-third regulars.

The Americans lost 16 killed and 130 wounded; the Filipinos lost 125 killed and 500 wounded.

On March 28, a fierce engagement took place at Marilao, which was captured. An incident of this battle was a brilliant charge of the South Dakota regiment.

Garcia, a Filipino general, came down from Dagupan by train with 1,000 riflemen and 4,000 Bolomen and took positions at Marilao. A river was between the American and the insurgent forces.

The South Dakota volunteers and the Third artillery, acting as infantry, were thrown forward. The South Dakotas charged brilliantly across an open space on the east of the railway to the edge of some woods. They lost 10 killed and 11 wounded, including three lieutenants.

The Third artillery on the edge of the railroad charged and lost nine men wounded, two mortally.

On the left the insurgents in a trench east of the river offered a stubborn resistance. Lieut. Critchlow, with two guns, forced 30 insurgents in a long trench on the opposite side of the river to surrender at the close quarters of 100 yards. The rest of the insurgents got out with severe loss. Ninety dead insurgents were counted.

The insurgents continued to retreat toward the north burning each town they evacuated.

On the night of March 30 McArthur was on the outskirts of Malolos,

the Filipino capital, where it was supposed Aguinaldo would make his final stand.

At dawn, March 31, the line of battle was formed. Its order was this: The Third artillery and the Montana and Kansas regiments on the right; on the left the South Dakota and Nebraska regiments and the Utah battery.

The battle opened with a bombardment of the trenches in front. For half an hour our shells fell in a shower. From the huts the natives threw knives at the Kansas men, while showers of arrows fell upon our right.

Our right wing, unbroken, advanced over fields and through streams and thickets, taking the main trenches south of the city. They found them deserted. The condition of the rebel earthworks gave proof of the wonderful accuracy of our artillery fire.

A few trembling men came out to meet the advancing line of bristling steel. They said that the Filipino army had gone by the railway toward the interior.

The Kansas men led the left as the American troops reached the city. The insurgent palace was burning and there were puffs of smoke from all quarters of the town.

At the end of the main street there was a stone barricade. Scattering bold spirits among the insurgents, concealed behind this, poured a hot fire into the Kansas ranks. But Colonel Funston, leaping from his horse and swinging his hat, yelled encouragement to his men.

With the Colonel at their head the Kansas men dashed over the barricade and down the street with terrific yells, firing volleys as they ran. The Kansas boys followed the Colonel as he leaped the barricade, and were with him when he reached the square where the walls of the flaming palace were crashing in.

Sweeping the square, the Kansans advanced to the other side of the town, where they rescued a hundred Chinamen who were being driven to the woods by the Filipinos under threats to cut their throats.

The little city was a scene of desolation. The American flag was raised at 10:00 A. M. beside the still burning palace, while the troops cheered lustily.

The decisive victories of General McArthur all the way from Manila to Malolos, and the capture of the Filipino capital had the effect of

scattering the insurgent forces and reducing the warfare to a guerrilla campaign.

Aguinaldo and the members of the Filipino Congress, after Malolos had been set on fire, decamped for parts unknown, but presumably to a town called San Fernando. Many of his troops deserted him, and while the rebellion was not ended, it received a blow from which it could not recover.

PUZZLE PICTURE—Find the Governor of the Philippines.—*Chicago Journal.*

CHAPTER XLII.

PRESIDENT McKINLEY'S PHILIPPINE COMMISSION AND ITS PROCLAMATION—MACARTHUR AND LAWTON PUSH THE CAMPAIGN AND FIGHT MANY DECISIVE BATTLES—COLONEL FRED FUNSTON OF KANSAS THE LAND HERO OF THE PHILIPPINE WAR.

HILE the events narrated in the preceding chapter were taking place a commission named by the President of the United States had arrived at Manila for the purpose of aiding by peaceable means in suppressing the rebellion. The commissioners sent direct from the United States were Jacob Gould Schurman, Charles Denby and Dean C. Worcester. To these were added Admiral Dewey and General Otis. The battle of Malolos, having been more or less decisive in character, the commission decided it was opportune to issue a proclamation to the defeated and discouraged insurgents. Accordingly on April 4 the following was made public:

"The commission desires to assure the people of the Philippine islands of the cordial good will and fraternal feeling which is entertained for them by the President of the United States and by the American people.

"The aim and object of the American government, apart from the fulfillment of the solemn obligations it has assumed toward the family of nations by its acceptance of sovereignty over the Philippine islands is the well-being, prosperity, and happiness of the Philippine people and their elevation and advancement to a position among the most civilized peoples of the world.

"The President believes that this felicity and perfection of the

Philippine people is to be brought about by the assurance of peace and order, by the guarantee of civil and religious liberty, by the establishment of justice, by the cultivation of letters, science and the liberal and practical arts, by the enlargement of intercourse with foreign nations, by expansion of industrial pursuits, by trade and commerce, by multiplication and improvement of the means of internal communication, by development, with the aid of modern mechanical inventions, of the great natural resources of the archipelago—and, in a word, by the uninterrupted devotion of the people to the pursuit of useful objects and the realization of those nobler ideals which constitute the higher civilization of mankind.

"Unfortunately these pure aims and purposes of the American government and people have been misinterpreted to some of the inhabitants of certain islands, and as a consequence the friendly American forces have without provocation or cause been openly attacked. And why these hostilities? What do the best Filipinos desire? Can it be more than the United States is ready to give? They are patriots and want liberty.

"In the meantime the attention of the people of the Philippines is invited to certain regulation principles by which the United States will be guided in its relations with them. These are deemed to be the points of cardinal importance:

"1. The supremacy of the United States must and will be enforced throughout every part of the archipelago, and those who resist it can accomplish no end other than their own ruin.

"2. To the Philippine people will be granted the most ample liberty and self-government reconcilable with the maintenance of a wise, just, stable, effective, and economical administration of public affairs and compatible with the sovereign and international rights and the obligations of the United States.

"3. The civil rights of the Philippine people will be guaranteed and protected to the fullest extent; religious freedom will be assured, and all persons shall be equal and have equal standing in the eyes of the law.

"4. Honor, justice, and friendship forbid the use of the Philippine people or the islands they inhabit as an object or means of exploitation. The purpose of the American government is the welfare and the advancement of the Philippine people.

"5. There shall be guaranteed to the Philippine people an honest and effective civil service in which, to the fullest extent to which it is practical, natives shall be employed.

"6. The collection and application of all taxes and other revenues will be placed upon a sound, economical basis and the public funds, raised justly and collected honestly, will be applied only to defray the regular and proper expenses incurred by and for the establishment and maintenance of the Philippine government, and such general improvements as the public interests may demand. Local funds collected will be used for local purposes and not to be devoted to other ends.

"With such prudent and honest fiscal administration, it is believed that the needs of the government will, in a short time, become compatible with a considerable reduction in taxation.

"7. A pure, speedy and effective administration of justice will be established whereby may be eradicated the evils arising from delay, corruption, and exploitation.

"8. The construction of roads, railroads, and similar means of communication and transportation and of other public works, manifestly to the advantage of the Philippine people, will be promoted.

"9. Domestic and foreign trade and commerce, agriculture, and other industrial pursuits tending toward the general development of the country, in the interests of the inhabitants, shall be objects of constant solicitude, and fostering care.

"10. Effective provision will be made for the establishment of elementary schools in which the children of the people may be educated, and appropriate facilities will be provided for a higher education.

"11. Reforms in all departments of the government, all branches of the public service, and all corporations closely touching the common life of the people, will be undertaken without delay and effected conformably with right and justice in a way to satisfy the well-founded demands and the highest sentiments and aspirations of the people.

"Such is the spirit in which the United States comes to the people of the islands, and the President has instructed the commission to make this publicly known.

"In obeying his behest, the commissioners desire to join the President in expressing their good will toward the Philippine people, and to extend to the leading representative men an invitation to meet them

for the purpose of personal acquaintance and the exchange of views and opinions.

"(Signed) JACOB GOULD SCHURMAN,
"United States Commissioner.
"GEORGE DEWEY,
"United States Navy.
"ELWELL S. OTIS,
"Major-General United States Army.
"CHARLES DENBY,
"United States Commissioner.
"DEAN C. WORCESTER,
"United States Commissioner."

The proclamation was posted in the streets, printed in English, Spanish, and Taglog. It was also distributed in the outside towns as far as Malolos, and was received with marked attention by the natives generally. During the next few days many of the rebels laid down their arms and came in under flags of truce, but the main bodies continued in the field and seemed determined to resist to the utmost.

General Lawton's command had moved forward and on April 10 he captured Santa Cruz, the chief city of Laguna de Bay, at the extreme end of the lake. The insurgents were commanded by a Chinaman named Pao-Wah. The rebels lost 95 killed and 40 wounded, while General Lawton's casualties were one officer and five privates. The insurgents fled to the mountains with Lawton in pursuit.

About midnight of the same date, the rebels cut the telegraph line at several places between Manila and Malolos and signal fires were lighted and rockets sent up along the foothills to the right of the railroad. Later the enemy attacked the outposts of the Minnesota regiment between Bigaa and Bocavie, five miles south of Malolos, killing two men and wounding fourteen.

Simultaneously the outposts of the Oregon regiment at Marilao, the next station on the way to Manila, were attacked, with the result that three Americans were killed and two were wounded. The loss of the enemy was ten killed and six wounded.

Troops were concentrated along the railroads as thickly as possible and the rebels were driven back to the foothills.

The roadbed of the railroad was damaged, but it was repaired almost immediately, and traffic was soon resumed through to Malolos.

General Wheaton started at daylight on April 12 with the Tenth Pennsylvania and the Second Oregon regiments and two guns to drive the rebels from the American right flank, between the railroad and the foothills.

He met with slight resistance near Santa Maria, and had one man wounded. But the enemy bolted when shelled by the artillery and burned and abandoned the town of Santa Maria, where a thousand rebels were reported to have been concentrated.

During the rest of the day the enemy was in full retreat toward the mountains, burning the villages behind the retreating force.

Lawton's command captured the villages of Pagsajan and Lumban on the preceding day, with some resistance at the latter place.

The mouth of the river, commanded by Lumban, was effectively blockaded against the entrance of the gunboats. Shells from the Laguna de Bay drove most of the insurgents in flight up the mountain side.

A small force remained in an old church, offering resistance until it was rushed by the troops.

About fifty natives were captured and several killed. There was one casualty among the Americans, that being an arm wound.

Six launches and two cascoes were captured in the river.

On April 12 the expedition moved twelve miles further north along the lake, taking two towns, Longos and Paete.

There was only desultory shooting from the retreating enemy until the advance reached Paete, the center of the insurgents' military government, in the district of Laguna de Bay. Here the road is flanked by steep hills on each side, on which the insurgents had constructed great log trenches, and also across the road. The North Dakota regiment ran into a cross fire.

Squads of five sharpshooters each were sent up the steep hill and through the thick brush to flank the insurgents. One squad of the North Dakota regiment suddenly came to the insurgent trenches only fifteen yards off. Only one man in this squad got away unhurt.

The tin-clad gunboats shelled the insurgents' position for an hour. The enemy was finally driven out. Our loss was five killed and two wounded; the greatest loss Lawton had yet sustained.

The American forces in the Philippines were reinforced on April

14 by the arrival of the transport Sheridan having on board the Twelfth Infantry and a battalion of the Seventeenth.

On April 17, General Lawton's expedition returned to Manila and prepared for a new campaign.

The following day Admiral Dewey notified the navy department of the capture of a boat's crew from the Yorktown by the Filipinos, in the following cablegram:

"Manila, April 18.—Secretary of the Navy, Washington: The Yorktown visited Baler, Luzon, east coast of Luzon, Philippine islands, April 12, for the purpose of rescuing and bringing away the Spanish forces, consisting of eighty soldiers, three officers and two priests, which were surrounded by four hundred insurgents. Some of the insurgents armed with Mauser rifles as reported by natives. Lieut. J. C. Gilmore, while making an examination of the mouth of the river in an armed boat, was ambushed, fired upon and captured. Fate unknown, as insurgents refused to communicate afterward. The following are missing: The officer previously referred to, Chief Quartermaster W. Walton, Coxswain J. Ellsworth, Gunner's Mate H. J. Hygard, Sailmaker's Mate Vendgit, Seamen W. H. Rynders, and C. W. Woodbury. Apprentices D. W. Venville, J. Peterson, Ordinary Seamen F. Brisolese and O. B. McDonald, Landsmen L. T. Edwards, F. Andersen, J. Dillon, and C. A. Morrissey. DEWEY."

Lieutenant Gilmore, Ensign W. H. Standley, and a boat's crew were sent up the river from Baler bay to communicate with the Spaniards, the town of Baler being situated some distance inland.

Ensign Standley, who landed at the mouth of the river, reported that he heard three volleys, a bugle call, and cheers from up the river, but that the automatic gun which was part of the equipment of the boat was not heard firing.

Standley later paddled to the Yorktown in a canoe. A search was made for the Yorktown's boat and her crew, but no trace of them was found, and the Yorktown sailed for Iloilo, from which place her commander cabled to Admiral Dewey his theories that the Filipinos had captured or sunk the boat or that the Spaniards had rescued the American party.

April 20 was marked by many skirmishes. At 6 o'clock in the morning three companies of the South Dakota regiment marched from Bo-

cave and in conjunction with three companies of the Minnesota regiment, from Guiguinto, north of Bocave, encountered a rebel force numbering fully five hundred men, when two miles out.

The enemy retired three miles in fairly good order, in spite of the fact that the rebels suffered heavy losses. The Americans, having exhausted their ammunition, were compelled to return to their camps.

The heat was intense. At noon the thermometers registered 95 degrees and the mercury was still rising. There were several prostrations from the heat among the troops, but only one man was wounded.

Later the army tugs opened fire on the enemy along the river banks. The rebels were unusually active west of Malolos as far as Calumpit. They had been busily at work on their trenches, and several new trenches were discovered within two miles of the railroad.

A force of about two hundred rebels in the afternoon attacked the outposts of the Washington regiment, near Taguig, south of Pasig and Pateros.

Two companies immediately engaged the enemy and advanced into the open in skirmish order. The rebels were checked and routed after two hours' fighting, leaving twelve men killed on the field and several wounded.

The American troops also obtained possession of many Mauser rifles and many other weapons. Three Americans were wounded.

General Lawton took the field at daybreak on the 22d, with a column of troops consisting of the North Dakota regiment, two battalions of the Third infantry, the Twenty-second infantry, two guns of Scott's battery, three troops of the Fourth cavalry, and Gale's squadron, equipped in light marching order.

This force started at 5 o'clock in the morning over the Novaliches road, traversing the country previously cleared of rebels, but subsequently reoccupied by them. It was General Lawton's intention by this movement, to outflank the enemy before joining General MacArthur north of Malolos.

The Dakota regiment first encountered the enemy in front of Novaliches at 8:15 A. M. The rebels opened fire on our troops, but their fire was silenced fifteen minutes later, the enemy retiring in bad order, and the Americans advancing along the rough roads around Novaliches.

They were considerably annoyed by the fire of the rebel sharpshooters from the jungle for two hours.

At 2 o'clock in the afternoon the rebels were in full flight, leaving many dead on the field, and our troops were compelled to take a brief rest in the shade, as the heat was overpowering.

A fierce fight took place at Quengua on April 23. Four men of the Nebraska regiment, including Colonel Stotsenburg, Lieutenant Sisson, and three men of the Fourth cavalry, were killed and forty-four wounded. The Filipinos retreated with small loss.

The engagement developed into a disastrous, though successful, fight. The insurgents had a horseshoe trench about a mile long, encircling a rice field on the edge of a wood.

Major Bell, with forty cavalrymen, encountered a strong outpost. One of his men was killed and five were wounded by a volley. The Americans retired, carrying their wounded under fire with great difficulty, being closely pursued, a fog enabling the enemy to creep up to them. Two men who were carrying a comrade were shot in the arms, but they continued with their burden.

Major Bell sent for re-enforcements to rescue the body of the killed cavalryman, and a battalion of the Nebraska regiment, under Major Mulford, arrived and advanced until checked by volleys from the enemy's trenches. The Americans lay about eight hundred yards from the trenches, behind rice furrows, under fire for two hours.

Several men were sunstruck, one dying from the effects of the heat as they lay there waiting for the artillery to come up.

Finally the Second battalion arrived, and then Colonel Stotsenburg, who had spent the night with his family at Manila, came upon the field. The men immediately recognized him and raised a cheer. Colonel Stotsenburg, deciding to charge as the cheapest way out of the difficulty, led the attack at the head of his regiment. He fell with a bullet in the breast, dying instantly, about two hundred yards from the breastworks.

Lieutenant Sisson fell with a bullet in his heart, the bullet striking him near the picture of a girl suspended by a ribbon from his neck.

In the meantime the artillery had arrived and shelled the trenches. The Filipinos stood until the Nebraska troops were right on the trenches, and then they bolted to the second line of intrenchments, a mile back.

The Nebraska regiment lost two privates killed and had many wounded, including two lieutenants. The Iowa regiment had several wounded. The Utah regiment had one officer and three men wounded.

Thirteen dead Filipinos were found in the trench. Their loss was comparatively small on account of their safe shelter.

The Americans carried the second trench with small loss.

Colonel Stotsenburg won a reputation as one of the bravest fighters in the army. He always led his regiment, and had achieved remarkable popularity with his men since the war began, although during his first colonelcy, the volunteers, who were not used to the rigid discipline of the regular troops, thought him a hard officer.

General MacArthur's division left Malolos on April 24 to besiege Calumpit. General Hale, at 4 o'clock in the afternoon, crossed the Bagbag and reached a position a quarter of a mile from Calumpit, thus commanding the ford.

Prisoners captured by General Hale's troops reported that Aguinaldo, General Luna, and the Filipino staff were at Calumpit with a great force of Filipino troops.

Before daylight the Fourth cavalry, with three guns belonging to the Utah battery, the Nebraska regiment, and the Iowa regiment, under General Hale, were proceeding in the direction of Kuinchua, where the Bagbag is fordable, but commanded by trenches. During the afternoon the troops crossed the river.

Generals MacArthur and Wheaton, with the Montana regiment, advanced to the left of the railroad and the Kansas regiment moved forward to the right, north of Malolos. They had with them a long supply train, with two armed cars in front, carrying two Gatling and Colts rapid-fire guns and the six-pounder which did such execution at the capture of Malolos.

MacArthur's division fought its way to the Filipino trenches before Calumpit, advancing four miles, mostly through woods and jungle, and crossing the Bagbag river.

This was accomplished at a cost to the Americans of six killed and twenty-eight wounded, the First South Dakota regiment being the heaviest loser.

After fording the river the South Dakotans pursued the insurgents to the outskirts of Calumpit, but the town was found so strongly protected that General MacArthur deemed it best to withdraw the tired fighters and to go into camp for a night's rest before making the final assault.

The largest buildings in Calumpit were being fired by the Filipinos,

while the Americans were crossing the river, fully a mile away, indicating the enemy's intention to abandon the place.

The enemy had planned to wreck our artillery transport train. This attempt was a failure, but a span of the iron railway bridge over the river was destroyed, hampering the American transportation for some time. The Filipinos cut the girders, intending to have the structure fall with the train, but it collapsed prematurely of its own weight.

The Bagbag river, which is about one hundred yards wide at that point, was splendidly fortified, and the Americans were compelled to approach across an open space from which the rebels had cleared every obstruction to sight. The bank of the river, a high bluff, was surmounted with trenches, capped with rocks, loopholed, and partly hidden by bushes.

General Wheaton's brigade approached the river along the railroad, leaving camp beyond Malolos City.

General Hale's was earlier on the march and swept westward toward the railroad. The armored train was being pushed by Chinamen, the Twentieth Kansas regiment advancing in extended order on the left and the First Montana regiment, with the Utah light artillery on the right.

The rapid-firing guns on the train "opened the ball" at 11:30 A. M., about a mile from the river, their popping alternating continuously with the boom of the six-pounders.

The Montana regiment and the Utah artillery batteries at the same time entered the jungle, from which the insurgents, who were occupying a large, straggling village of huts, poured heavy volleys. In the course of an hour the Americans had forced a passage through the woods to the open space in front of the river, and the artillery, immediately on wheeling into the open, began shelling the Filipino trenches.

In the meantime, Company K, Twentieth Kansas, led by Captain Boltwood, performed one of the most brilliant achievements of the campaign. The regiment was being held in reserve, and Company K charged a distance of a quarter of a mile over a cornfield to the bank of the river, near the bridge, where the insurgents from a trench were peppering the armored train, then about two hundred yards down the track. The company found shelter in a ditch.

Col. Frederick Funston called for volunteers to cross the river, and the colonel himself, Lieutenant Ball, a private of Company K, a pri-

vate of Company E, Trumpeter Barsfield, and Corporal Ferguson of Company I crawled along the iron girders.

While this was going on the men of Company K, from the ditch, were fusillading the trenches in the endeavor to divert attention, but the Filipinos got the range from a trench down the river, and their bullets soon spattered the water under the structure.

Having reached the broken span, the small but valorous party of Americans slid down the caisson, swam a few yards to the shore, and crawled up the bank, the little colonel leading the way to the trenches, revolver in hand, while the few remaining Filipinos bolted.

Colonel Funston said afterward:

"It wasn't much to do. We knew they could not shoot straight and that our boys would attend to them while we were crossing."

General Hale's troops, on the right, had the hardest fight. They followed the north bank of the river, nearest the town, from the east, with the First Nebraska regiment on the left and the First South Dakota and the Fifty-first Iowa beyond. The country to be traversed was mostly jungle, but the Filipinos stood their ground even in the open spaces.

General Hale's right joined General Wheaton's left soon after noon, a curve in the river enabling the Americans to pour an enfilading fire into the enemy's trenches. About this time the cheers of the Kansas troops announced that the Americans had crossed the river.

General Hale's men began to ford the Chico, a branch of the Bagbag, stretching to the northeast. The General himself plunged in up to his neck, and the regiments, all carrying flags, floundered across the stream. The guns of the Utah light artillery were dragged over next and formed into an extended line to advance upon the trenches before Calumpit, from which the Filipinos were pouring continuous volleys.

The armored car had one man killed and two wounded. The Kansas regiment had three wounded during the charge, and the Utah light artillery one killed and two wounded. Most of the other casualties befell the South Dakota regiment.

The American troops entered Calumpit on the afternoon of April 26. Aguinaldo's forces retreated to their trenches just outside the city and made a stubborn stand. General MacArthur's troops secured commanding positions in the city itself and opened up a terrific bombard-

ment of the enemy's positions. American guns planted in front of the Calumpit church did great execution in the Filipino trenches.

The American losses in the afternoon were fifteen killed and wounded, in addition to eight killed in the early fighting in front of the city. The insurgents were strongly intrenched on the opposite bank of the Rio Grande, and for the first time since hostilities began used cannon. They fired shrapnel from guns in the trenches, but the shot burst over the heads of the Americans and no damage was done.

It was learned from Spanish sources that General Antonio Luna had succeeded Aguinaldo. The new commander threatened death to all natives in whose possession the American proclamation recently issued by the Philippine commission should be found.

General MacArthur had 6,000 troops engaged in the attack on Calumpit. Their valor was unparalleled. Calumpit was on fire when the advance of General MacArthur's division, comprising the brigade of Generals Hale, Wheaton, and Lawton, was ordered. The insurgents met the American troops with severe firing. The greater part of Aguinaldo's army was in the town and the trenches before it.

The guns of the Utah artillery did masterful work. They tore great gaps in the trenches and drove the natives out with appalling slaughter. Then the infantry charged the trenches. The insurgents stood their ground as long as they could and then fled. The Americans then had little difficulty in entering the city.

On all sides was to be seen the havoc wrought by the intensity of the American firing. The dead Filipinos lay two, and even three, deep in some places. The trenches were choked with bodies.

In the meantime two columns—the first under General Lawton and the second under Colonel Summers—met at Norzagaray, in the hills fifteen miles east of Calumpit.

General Lawton had marched twenty-eight miles under almost insurmountable difficulties. This advance was one of the most notable feats of the entire campaign against the insurgents.

The road over which the expedition advanced was a mere trail across rough hills. The entire force had to turn in and help the wagon train, as the use of water buffaloes proved an inefficient method of transportation, ten of the animals dying of exhaustion. The enemy offered little resistance.

Colonel Summers, with his force, reached Norzagaray Sunday

morning, taking the town after a little fighting. The enemy retreated to the hills. On Tuesday the American forces took and burned the village of Angat, the total loss being five wounded.

Colonel Fred Funston's daring exploits at Calumpit won him world-wide fame and he became at once a popular hero. What Roosevelt was in Cuba, Funston was in the Philippines—the hero of the campaign. General Otis praised him highly in his dispatches and President McKinley rewarded him with a commission as Brigadier-General.

In the entire army there is probably no man who has seen more fighting in proportion to his age than Col. Fred Funston. He is a born soldier and has generally contrived to be in the vicinity where bullets were flying thickest, and although he has been wounded a number of times he has always escaped serious injury. His friends say that this is partly because there is so little of him to hit, for he is only five feet five inches tall and his top weight is about 115 pounds. His latest exploit, when he took his Kansans across the Rio Grande de la Pampanga on a raft hastily constructed for the purpose, under a heavy fire from the Filipinos, formed them on the other side, and took the fortifications at the charge, adds one more heroic service to a record already long.

From his boyhood days Fred Funston has been a fighter. He was born in Ohio in 1866, but his father, E. H. Funston, soon moved to Kansas, where he became a congressman and was known as "Foghorn" Funston. His first public appearance was made when he was about sixteen years old at a political meeting at Fort Scott, Kas. The political meeting happened to be opposed to his father's candidacy, but that made no difference to young Fred—in fact, it was the reason for his being there. After all the speaking was over and "Foghorn" Funston had been pretty well torn to pieces the young fellow got up, took the stage and said that he had a few remarks to make. He proceeded to make them in the face of strenuous opposition, but when the audience presently discovered that he was telling a good story on his father it quieted down. He finished that story and then another, and then began to tell what kind of a man "Foghorn" Funston who had been the butt of so much ridicule, really was. In vain did the organizers of the meeting howl for adjournment, the boy now had his audience with him, and by the time he had finished a brief but well-put statement of the political

situation it was a Funston audience, and the effect of his oratory was very evident on election day.

Two years later Fred Funston entered the Kansas State University, where he was a classmate of William Henry White, who made himself famous by his inquiry, "What's the matter with Kansas?" White says that if it hadn't been for himself Funston would have stood at the foot of the class, and even as it was it was a close race. He tells this story of the young fellow's college career:

Owing to difficulty which he experienced with some of the text-books he didn't graduate, but in 1887 became city editor of the Fort Smith Tribune, a stanch upholder of the local democracy. A few days before the election the editor-in-chief went away, leaving the paper in Funston's hands. He had been getting pretty weary of the democrats, who had been conducting their campaign on a basis of bribery and intimidation, and his first act when he was put in control was to write an editorial stating his opinions with a degree of frankness which left no room for misunderstanding. This engaging open-mindedness did not appeal to the worthy citizens of Fort Smith, who set about showing the young editor the error of his ways by burning down the Tribune building. Funston gathered his staff about him and prepared to defend the place, but the editor-in-chief hastily returned in answer to urgent telegraphic summons from his friends and appeased the wrath of the democrats by a hasty issue, explaining editorially what had happened. Naturally, young Funston did not retain his job. There was talk of tarring and feathering him before he could get away from town, but he didn't evince any haste in leaving. Instead, he wandered around the place with his nose in the air, looking for some of the alleged ringleaders in the proposed scheme. When he did finally leave there were no feathers attached to him, except the feather in his cap at having bluffed practically the whole town. When a friend asked him why he had so foolishly thrown away his situation by printing such an editorial the young man said briefly:

"I was tired of the rotten politics and tired of the rotten town, and tired of the rotten sheet, and ready to go anyway; so I thought I might just as well wake the place up and let 'em know I was alive before I left."

For a time Funston was out of a job. Then he drifted into the railroad business and became a conductor on the Santa Fe line. One day

a cowboy full of rum became rampageous in his car and lying down on his back in the aisle began to shoot holes in the ceiling. The little conductor kicked the revolver out of his hand, yanked him along the aisle, and threw him off the back platform. The cowboy got up and hurled a piece of ballast, which broke an end window, then started and ran down the track, with Funston in hot pursuit, flinging ballast as he ran, until the fugitive distanced him. By the time he got back to his train, sweating and breathless, half an hour had been dropped on the schedule. The superintendent made inquiry about it and the conductor explained.

"It was all right to throw him off," said the superintendent, "but what did you go and chase him for?"

"I suppose I was mad," said Funston. "Wouldn't you be mad if a man threw a rock through your window?"

"Probably; but don't do it again," said the superintendent.

Whether because of this restriction or for other causes the young man soon left the railroad's employ and cast about him for something else to do. The chance came in an expedition to Dakota, followed by one to Death valley. From this latter half of the travelers came back permanently disabled, but it seemed to agree with Funston and he liked so well the exploring of unknown countries that he looked around for something else in the same line. The agricultural department wanted some one to collect botanical specimens in the interior of Alaska and a friend got an offer of the place for Funston, at the same time warning him that it was a perilous job.

"That's all right," said the young man, "but as my botanical knowledge doesn't extend much further than knowing a violet from a sunflower, I don't think I'd be a valuable collector."

Nevertheless the prospect was so alluring that he set to work to learn practical botany, and in 1892 was in Alaska. He went over Chilkoot pass in a late blizzard, struck for the interior, reached the spot where Dawson City now is, and started down the Yukon alone in a canoe which he had built. His canoe was caught in rapids, split on a rock, and that would have been the end of Fred Funston but for a missionary who chanced to be going along with some Indians and who saved him. That winter he spent with Indians, hunting and exploring, and when he returned it was with a store of highly comprehensive and valuable botanical material. His one criticism of Alaska was that it was a magnificent country, but pretty lonely.

His next venture was in Cuba, where he went filibustering. Gomez gave him a commission and he became second in command of artillery under Osgood, the famous Cornell football half-back. He made a record for bravery at Guimaro in October, 1896, where his chief was killed, and he took command. At the head of his artillerymen and with a dynamite bomb in his hand he charged the Spanish works in the assault which terminated in their surrender. At Bayamo he became a cavalry officer temporarily because there was more for cavalry than for artillery to do there, and was shot three times, but such was his endurance and physique that he was ready for more fighting in a short time. At Las Tunas he managed the Cuban dynamite guns which wrought such havoc among the Spanish troops, and was again wounded. At the same time his horse was shot and fell upon him, badly injuring his hips. Wounded as he was he hobbled to headquarters on learning that fifty prisoners, guerrillas who fought on the Spanish side, were to be executed and begged for their lives. The petition was refused.

Enraged at the barbarity of the Cubans, Funston swore that he would never strike another blow in a cause that permitted such an outrage, and thereupon resigned his commission, having fought in twenty-two battles. With a letter from General Garcia ordering transportation to this country for him he went to the coast and fell in with a number of Spaniards. As it didn't seem advisable to be found with papers signed by Garcia upon him, Funston ate the letter. It gave him indigestion, which, added to the malaria and the effects of his wounds, left him in a very bad condition when he landed here, the Spaniards having treated him well and put him aboard a ship. For three weeks he was in a hospital here and when he came out he weighed but ninety pounds.

Shortly after he had recovered his normal health and energy the war with Spain broke out and he offered his services. An opportunity was given him to go on General Miles' staff, but he chose rather to accept the command of the Twentieth Kansas, after he had failed of recognition in his project to raise a regiment of rough riders. It was a great disappointment to him that his regiment did not get to Cuba, but his chance came later when they were ordered to the Philippines. On the way there was a long wait in San Francisco, where Colonel Funston met, wooed, and married a young music teacher, all in two weeks, and she accompanied him to Manila. Since the fighting began he

and his Kansans have been prominent in many battles. In the fighting before Malolos he found himself with part of his command on one side of the muddy Marilao river and a force of Filipinos on the other side, who had a good position and were galling our troops by their constant fire. Calling for volunteers who could swim, Colonel Funston selected twenty men, told them to follow him, and, holding his revolver up, swam the stream. The men put their guns on logs and followed, pushing the logs. On the other side the little force charged and captured eighty Filipinos. He was the first man to enter Malolos after the capture. Those who have seen Colonel Funston in action say that he has inspired his men with unbounded confidence in him and that he has only to call for volunteers and they will be at his side ready to follow wherever he may lead. The temper of his men is shown by the feat where two of them, on his call for volunteers, swam the river, towing a heavy rope, and fastened the rope to a tree on the further bank while the Filipinos were firing at them all the time, the rope being used as a guidance for the raft on which Colonel Funston transported his command in successive trips.

On April 28 Col. Manuel Arguelese and Lieut. Jose Bernal, chief of General Luna's staff, entered General MacArthur's lines bearing a flag of truce. They asked for a cessation of hostilities in order to treat for peace. General MacArthur had them conveyed to General Otis' headquarters at Manila.

The envoys were very hospitably treated by General Otis, who provided them with a house and with a guard, and permitted them to visit friends here. Returning to the palace the envoys saw an illustration of American resources. A long train of wagons and pack mules was just starting with provisions for General Lawton, who had reached Marunco.

The conference at the palace lasted three hours, Jacob G. Schurman of the United States Philippine Commission attending and Admiral Dewey dropping in for an hour. The discussion was mostly between General Otis and Colonel Argueleses, who had been selected for the mission by General Luna because he had known General Otis. Colonel Argueleses served on the Filipino committee which met the American authorities before the war in an endeavor to smooth over the impending troubles.

Mr. Schurman emerged from the palace between the two shock-

haired, half-savage-looking emissaries, and the three drove unattended to the office of the United States Philippine commission, where they talked informally for about an hour.

Colonel Argueleses, who is a lawyer, splendidly illustrated the Malay subtlety at words. While he declared with apparent frankness that the Filipino leaders wanted a chance to give up the struggle gracefully through the congress instead of surrendering ignominiously, he asked for a fortnight's armistice so that the congress might be summoned on May 1; he endeavored to commit the Americans to greater concessions, and wanted terms guaranteed by treaty. He was told that recognition of the Filipino government was impossible, and he was given to understand that a written guarantee of amnesty for all insurgents was the utmost that could be given. Colonel Argueleses argued that Spain had given similar guarantees and broken them, and he laid much stress on the Spaniards' honor. He persistently declared that the Filipinos must be permitted to retire with honor.

In conversation with Mr. Schurman, Colonel Argueleses revived the question of independence and was referred to the statement in the commissioner's proclamation that the Filipinos would be given an increasing measure of self-government as soon as they proved themselves worthy of it. Mr. Schurman warned Argueleses that the longer war was waged and the more were killed, the stronger would be the animosities hindering an amicable co-operation between the two peoples for the prosperity of the islands.

The conference was without results and hostilities were renewed.

CHAPTER XLIII.

LIFE OF GEN. EMILIO AGUINALDO.

A CHARACTER STUDY OF THE FILIPINO LEADER, WITH ALL THE PRINCIPAL EVENTS OF HIS EXCITING CAREER.

EMILIO AGUINALDO, the leader of the Filipino insurgents in the rebellions against Spain and the United States, is a person of historical importance, whatever opinions one may hold concerning his ability or his motives. It is as difficult to fix his genealogical status as it was for the Spanish and American troops to locate him during the rebellions he directed against their countries. He was born in Old Cavite, March 22, 1869. His parents have been variously described. One writer says they were a clever Japanese couple; another makes his father a Malay and his mother a native Togal. A better authority than either of the two referred to, speaks of Aguinaldo as a demisang (half blood) of Hispano-Togal ancestry, and supplements it with the information that the moral mire of the Philippines was so deep under Spanish rule, the immorality of the dominant race so universal, that neither the civil nor religious authorities ever cared to keep any record of the alliances and misalliances, the births legitimate or illegitimate, the wives, concubines and mistresses, slaves and abducted women, who have filled the long years of Spanish rule. It seems certain that a modicum of Chinese blood flows in the veins of the Filipino leader, and that some Igorrate-Chinese or Togal-Chinese figures in his pedigree.

Those with whom he has been associated in the rebellion say that his father was a Spanish general; others allege that he is the son of a Jesuit priest, a very learned but dissolute man. This latter statement is made by his enemies and seems to have been founded on the fact that at four years of age Aguinaldo was a house boy in the home of a

Jesuit priest in Cavite. The priest treated the boy very differently from the way houseboys are generally treated. He dressed him in good clothes and gave him an education, an advantage possessed by only three per cent of the inhabitants of the Philippines.

Little is known of his childhood, except that it is reported he was a most precocious boy who when ten years of age was the mental superior of most of the people of the Togal tribe, and the Togals are the most enlightened of all the Philippine islanders.

At the age of fifteen he entered the medical department of the Pontifical University of Manila, where he was considered an unusually bright student.

Aguinaldo's public career began in 1888 in Hong Kong. He had incurred the displeasure of both the secular and religious authorities by having become a Freemason; it was also about this time that he began to express hostile opinions to Spanish rule in his native land. Already there was a large colony of Filipino exiles in Hong Kong, as well as a great number of Filipinos who preferred to carry on business under the protection of the British flag instead of submitting to the extortionate demands of Spain.

Up to this time Aguinaldo's knowledge of government and military affairs had been confined to his observation of Spanish methods in the Philippines. At Hong Kong a new field of observation was opened to him and aroused his interest to the highest pitch. He watched the drills of the soldiers at the British garrison and was an enthusiastic spectator at parades. He was frequently seen in the gun shops, where he purchased arms and skilled himself in their uses.

He seemed to be infatuated with the study of warfare, and during his residence in Hong Kong he read the lives and campaigns of all the great soldiers of modern times—Bonaparte, Wellington, Von Moltke, Grant. He became an ardent student of languages also, and in addition to Spanish and the three principal native tongues in the islands he acquired a fair knowledge of English, French and Chinese.

He then became fired by an ambition to adopt arms as a profession and went to Kowloon where he entered the Chinese army. He remained but a short time in this branch of the service, claiming that nothing was to be learned from the ignorant natives in command. He next entered the Chinese navy, becoming one of a crew officered by Europeans.

In 1896 a revolution broke out in the Philippine islands and gave Aguinaldo the opportunity for military leadership he seems to have been seeking. The real leader of that revolution until the time of his execution was Dr. Jose Rizal.

The conditions which brought about the revolution of 1896 were as follows: For some years there had been a deficiency in the revenues, presumably through the dishonesty of Spanish officials. The people were already taxed beyond their ability to pay promptly, but an old law was revived whereby any person who failed to pay his taxes could be put to labor by the government. Taxation was increased and thousands of unfortunates who became in arrears for taxes were turned over to contractors and forced to work out the tax at the rate of about ten cents per day. They were only allowed sufficient food to keep them alive and only such shelter as would protect them from the violence of the elements. It was slavery pure and simple, and a grinding, hopeless form of slavery at that.

Among those who protested most loudly and effectively against such degradation was Dr. Jose Rizal, a friend and compatriot of Aguinaldo's, and one of the best educated men in the islands.

Dr. Rizal wrote a number of pamphlets denouncing both the state and the church—for the latter had demanded and been granted a share of the forced labor.

"Treason and blasphemy" were the charges under which the friends of human liberty were arrested and condemned. He was taken to the public square and shot to death in the manner prescribed for the execution of criminals.

News of his death fanned the flames of revolution into a blaze. In those provinces where Rizal had spoken and in which his pamphlet had been most widely circulated, the people were already in revolt. All they lacked for effective operations against the Spaniards was a military leader, and that desired individual appeared upon the scene in the person of Emilio Aguinaldo.

At the outbreak of the revolution Aguinaldo was holding some small political position in a provincial town. By his studied courtesy and diplomacy he had acquired considerable popularity. He was on good terms with the natives, the Spaniards and the church officials, except the Dominicans, some of whom had laid information against

him for being a Mason. At the same time he was one of the prime movers in the revolutionary conspiracy.

At one bound he became the actual leader of the insurgents in the field. From plain Emilio Aguinaldo he became General Emilio Aguinaldo in a day. A stirring incident in his career occurred at this time. He was in the province of Cavite, and hearing that a warrant had been issued for his arrest he gathered about him twenty of his followers and awaited the arrival of the officials bearing the warrant. The next day a captain and two sergeants of the civil guard appeared with the warrant. They were shot down, and from that moment Aguinaldo became a fighting rebel against the Spanish government.

Fortunately for the insurgents the greater part of Spain's military strength in the islands was made up of native troops. The Spanish Captain General soon discovered that he did not have one native regiment upon which he could rely. The Spanish regiments were wholly unable to cope with the insurgents.

The revolution spread rapidly and in many provinces was characterized by many acts of cruelty and revenge. Wherever the insurgents could find a man who had used the forced labor he was put to death, and in some cases where the families of men had starved while the heads of the household were forced to government labor, the offenders were burned at the stake, hacked into pieces and subjected to other forms of torture. No discrimination was made between state and church officials in meting out this bitter revenge.

The revolution had become so formidable and the prospects of suppressing it by force seemed so futile that Spain had recourse to her oldest and most characteristic method of dealing with opponents—bribery, deception, trickery and treachery. Accordingly the insurgents were notified that if they would lay down their arms and return to their homes and the leaders leave the country the government would pay all expenses, including the wages of the troops, would not prosecute any one for participating in the rebellion and would at once put into effect all the reforms demanded by the revolutionists.

The proposition for a time created considerable dissension among the leaders. One faction was for rejecting it and continuing the revolution to the bitter end; another faction favored its acceptance forthwith.

Aguinaldo, who headed a third faction, here displayed some of

the diplomacy for which he has since been noted among his own people. He advocated peace and favored the acceptance of Spain's proposal, but he had no faith in Spanish promises, and he insisted that certain conditions should govern the acceptance. One of these conditions was that the Spanish government should pay down a sum of money—something more than $1,000,000—as an evidence of good intent. This was agreed to and the insurgents laid down their arms, disbanded and returned to their homes.

Aguinaldo, Agoncillo and some other leaders went to Hong Kong, while others went to Singapore. Out of this transaction grew the charges of accepting bribes made against Aguinaldo. The only group that ever received any part of the $1,000,000 and more was the one under the leadership of Aguinaldo. To this group $300,000 was paid, according to reports of the Hong Kong and Shanghai bank. Spanish officials claimed that more than $1,000,000 was paid to the insurgents, and Aguinaldo and his particular followers were accused of having embezzled the most of it.

Whether the money was embezzled by the Filipino leaders supposed to have received it or by Spanish officials supposed to have paid it, the reader must decide for himself. One part of the transaction, however, is not in doubt. None of the reforms promised was ever put in operation. That part of the agreement was completely ignored, and instead of affairs becoming better they rapidly grew worse. Every person who had held any official position among the insurgents was persecuted by the government. Special taxes were levied and the practice of torturing suspects was continued.

These conditions continued until the autumn of 1897, when Aguinaldo and his followers decided to renew hostilities. They purchased arms in small quantities from thrifty Chinese merchants and shipped them to the islands in junks and small sailing vessels which did not have to register, and in a short time the islanders were again in a state of insurrection.

The rebellion was progressing as well as could be expected under the circumstances when war was declared between the United States and Spain. This was Aguinaldo's greatest opportunity, and he was quick to improve it. He displayed a remarkable degree of activity. He visited the American officials at Hong Kong and tendered the aid of himself and followers. He bought arms and shipped them to the

insurgents, and enlisted the services of many adventurers. It may be said that he organized this latest revolution upon a larger scale than the preceding one. He is reported to have said to an American naval officer at Hong Kong:

"There will be war between your country and Spain, and in that war you can do the greatest deed in history by putting an end to the Castilian tyranny in my native land. We are not ferocious savages. On the contrary, we are unspeakably patient and docile. That we have risen from time to time is no sign of bloodthirstiness on our part, but merely of manhood resenting wrongs which it is no longer able to endure. You Americans revolted for nothing at all compared with what we have suffered. Mexico and the Spanish republics rose in rebellion and swept the Spaniard into the sea, and all their sufferings together would not equal that which occurs every day in the Philippines. We are supposed to be living under the laws and civilization of the nineteenth century, but we are really living under the practices of the Middle Ages.

"A man can be arrested in Manila, plunged into jail, and kept there twenty years without ever having a hearing or even knowing the complaint upon which he was arrested. There is no means in the legal system there of having a prompt hearing or of finding out what the charge is. The right to obtain evidence by torture is exercised by military, civil, and ecclesiastical tribunals. To this right there is no limitation, nor is the luckless witness or defendant permitted to have a surgeon, a counsel, a friend, or even a bystander to be present during the operation. As administered in the Philippines one man in every ten dies under the torture, and nothing is ever heard of him again. Everything is taxed so that it is impossible for the thriftiest peasant farmer or shopkeeper to ever get ahead in life. The Spanish policy is to keep all trade in the hands of Spanish merchants, who come out here from the peninsula and return with a fortune. The government budget for education is no larger than the sum paid by the Hong Kong authorities for the support of Victoria College here. What little education is had in the Philippines is obtained from the good Jesuits, who, in spite of their being forbidden to practice their priestly calling in Luzon, nevertheless devote their lives to teaching their fellow-countrymen. They carry the same principle into the Church, and no matter how devout, able, or learned a Filipino or even a half-breed may be, he is

not permitted to enter a religious order or ever to be more than an acolyte, sexton, or an insignificant assistant priest. The state taxes the people for the lands which it says they own, and which as a matter of fact they have owned from time immemorial, and the Church collects rent for the same land upon the pretext that it belongs to them under an ancient charter of which there is no record. Neither life nor limb, liberty, nor property have any security whatever under the Spanish administration."

Immediately after Admiral Dewey's victory at Manila, Aguinaldo and his principal aides went to Luzon and conducted the insurrection in person. That he rendered effective assistance to the American forces cannot be denied, for he captured about 15,000 Spaniards and drove many others from Luzon to the smaller islands. But while he performed much valuable detail work, from the time of his landing he was a thorn in the side of the American officers. He made frequent demands for a declaration of the ultimate intentions of the American government, and insisted upon a recognition by the United States of the independence of the Philippines.

To strengthen these demands he organized in June, 1898, a quasi-government, the officials of which were of his military staff, or were his relatives. On the twenty-third of the same month this body confirmed him as generalissimo of the Philippines and president of the revolutionary government.

This action, however serious in intent, was given a farcical appearance by the issuance of a proclamation on July 5 of the most bombastic character. The proclamation was chiefly a code of etiquette, and among other things designated the following insignia of office for Aguinaldo, himself: A gold collar, a triangle badge of gold, a cane with head and tassels of gold and a gold whistle.

In December, 1898, he organized a second cabinet, which was a decided improvement on his first one. It was composed of men who had participated as leaders in the revolutions of 1896-7.

Previous to the ratification of the peace treaty with Spain, Aguinaldo sent his personal friend and henchman, Felipe Agoncillo, as a special envoy to Washington for the purpose of securing recognition of Philippine independence, but neither Congress nor the President could officially recognize him or the quasi government he claimed to represent.

On February fifth, the day preceding the ratification of the peace treaty by the Senate, the American troops in Manila were fired upon by the insurgents. This revolutionary act against United States authority is said to have been inspired by a cablegram from Agoncillo to Aguinaldo in the belief that it would defeat the ratification of the treaty. Agoncillo strenuously denies having sent any message inciting his countrymen to revolt against the United States. Whether he did so or not, the revolt had the contrary effect from what was intended. Public sentiment, which had been divided on the Philippine question. was unified and the treaty was ratified.

CHAPTER XLIV.

EXPANSIONISTS VS. ANTI-EXPANSIONISTS.

PRESIDENT McKINLEY'S POLICY IN THE PHILIPPINES CAUSES HEATED DISCUSSION THROUGHOUT THE UNITED STATES—BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE CONTROVERSY.

AS HAS been stated in the chapter on the treaty of peace with Spain, there was a wide difference of opinion in the United States whether or not that treaty should be ratified. The opposition to the treaty came from those citizens who were opposed to the acquisition of territory other than that on the American continent or contiguous thereto. The real "bone of contention" was the acquisition of the Philippine islands. Many who opposed the treaty because it provided for the cession of these islands were not opposed to the acquisition of Puerto Rico on account of its contiguity to the American continent, but, generally speaking, the opponents of the treaty were opposed to any further extension of the republic's boundaries.

After the ratification of the treaty and the outbreak of the Philippine rebellion, the differences of opinion between the expansionists and anti-expansionists became more pronounced than ever and furnished the topic for most public discussions and private arguments.

Those who supported the President and his Philippine policy became known as expansionists; their opponents called them Imperialists. Those opposed to the President and his Philippine policy became known as anti-expansionists; their opponents called them copperheads, traitors and other opprobious epithets.

The administration's supporters held mass meetings all over the country and adopted the title of "loyalists," while the opponents of the

administration held similar meetings under the name of anti-imperialists.

The first man of importance to raise his voice against the policy of the administration was former President Grover Cleveland. He was followed by Hon. William J. Bryan, the defeated candidate for President in 1896. While it may be said truthfully that most of the anti-expansionists were Democrats and most of the expansionists were Republicans, at the time of this writing the question had not become a party issue. Many prominent Republicans were opposed to the Philippine policy of the administration. George Frisbie Hoar, United States Senator from Massachusetts, was the leader of the anti-expansionists in the Senate. Andrew Carnegie, the great iron and steel manufacturer, may be placed at the head of that portion of the business elements opposed to the expansion of United States territory. Carl Schurz, the leader of the independents, declared against expansion, and Edward Atkinson, the economist, even went to the extent of writing pamphlets in opposition to the administrative policy and attempted to circulate them among the American troops engaged in suppressing the Philippine rebellion led by Aguinaldo. The government did not interfere with the circulation of these pamphlets within the United States proper, but such of them as were addressed to Americans in the Philippines were, by order of the Postmaster General, taken from the mails at San Francisco. This act incited the ire of the anti-expansionists and was applauded by the expansionists. It stimulated discussion and both sides renewed the discussion with greater intensity of feeling. The magnitude and importance of this controversy warrants the setting forth in brief terms the arguments used and also a definition of the principles involved in the discussion.

The expansionists claimed that loyalty to flag and country demanded that the President should be supported. They asserted that it had been a part of his policy to bring about an independent form of government in the Philippines, and that this had been interfered with by the revolt of Aguinaldo and the attack of the Filipinos upon American troops on the outskirts of Manila. Hence they argued that the first duty of the government was to suppress the rebellion, and that no form of government, except the supremacy of American military authority, could be properly considered until the rebellion was at an end.

Such of them as were unalterably opposed to an independent government in the Philippines cited the fact that only three per cent of the inhabitants of the islands could read and write; that the bulk of the population were savages and consequently unfit for self-government. The belief also was expressed that under an independent form of government Aguinaldo would set himself up as dictator; that oppression, revolt and anarchy would follow and that conditions would be worse than under Spanish rule.

The argument entitled to the most consideration, however, was based on expediency and was substantially as follows:

The Philippine Islands came into possession of the United States as a spoil of war. Conditions were such at the close of the Spanish war, that the United States had the choice of giving the islands back to Spain, to recognize the revolutionary government established by Aguinaldo, or to take possession of them. To have given them back to Spain would have been to defeat the purpose for which the Spanish war was waged—in the name of humanity—to liberate an enslaved and oppressed people. To have ordered away Dewey's fleet and Otis's army and left the revolutionary government in control would have been an invitation to Great Britain, Germany or Japan or any other foreign nation that coveted the islands to step in under some pretext of influence with the rights of their subjects and annex or partition the islands. Popular sentiment would not have sustained the administration in either course. The only course left, therefore, was for the United States to take possession, which it did.

The matter of expediency, however, was only one reason among many advanced for sustaining the executive and in favor of annexing the islands.

Some of the expansionists relied upon what they called "manifest destiny." If the United States had not expanded, they asserted that its confines would still be the boundaries of the thirteen original States. The increase in population, the growth and spread of American civilization alike demanded the increase of territory. Since the American government was the best on earth it became the duty of Americans to spread the blessings of American civil liberty.

The Louisiana purchase, the cession of Florida, the purchase of Alaska, were referred to as just precedents for the acquisition of the new territory. They claimed that inasmuch as the United States had

assimilated the native population of Florida and Louisiana it could assimilate the alien races in the Philippines. They made the point against Democratic anti-expansionists that all of the territory outside of the original thirteen States had been acquired under Democratic presidents with the single exception of Alaska.

One large element among the expansionists was composed of those in commercial pursuits who advocated territorial expansion in the interest of trade expansion. They contended that commerce was the controlling factor in the government of nations and that through the expansion of American trade American civilization could best be spread and promoted. They pointed to the great growth of American trade in China and contended that the United States needed the Philippine Islands as a way station on the great commercial highway of American-Asiatic commerce.

Other advocates of national expansion based their action on the belief that the progress of the country had been retarded by the policy of national isolation which had been pursued for more than a century. They held that America could not cut herself off from the balance of the world and expect a proportionate share in the world progress. They declared that the time had come when the United States should take its proper place among other nations and assume its share of responsibility for the extension of civilized government. They asserted that the fathers of the American Republic could not have foreseen conditions that were to exist at the close of the Nineteenth Century, and that the policies pursued in the days of Washington and Jefferson did not necessarily apply to the days of McKinley. They did not hesitate to declare a belief that the day of rule for the Latin races had ended and that henceforth the Anglo-Saxons would dominate and govern the earth. Among this element of expansionists were to be found many advocates of an Anglo-American alliance.

The anti-expansionists were not inconsiderable in numbers, and they opposed the policy of national expansion with a multiplicity of arguments.

First of these was that the forcible acquisition of territory, especially away from the American continent, was a violation of all precedent and contrary to the teachings of the fathers and the spirit and letter of the American declaration of independence. They claimed that it was a fundamental principle of our government that "all governments

derive their just powers from the consent of the governed," and that the administration was attempting to overthrow this principle in taking the Philippine Islands against the armed protest of the Philippine people.

In this they claimed to see a tendency toward imperialism and to foresee the ultimate overthrow of the republic itself. By the warfare against the Filipinos they claimed that American lives were needlessly sacrificed and that American troops were being wrongfully employed to subjugate a people entitled to freedom.

One of the arguments most freely used was to quote from the war resolutions passed by Congress declaring that the war against Spain was waged for humanity's sake, and particularly disclaiming any intention of acquiring territory. The anti-expansionists recalled the fact that the resolutions also provided for the ultimate freedom and independence of Cuba and they attempted to show that the Filipinos were better qualified to form and maintain an independent government than the Cubans.

But their main reliance was upon the Monroe doctrine and similar utterances of American statesmen which had come to be accepted as established principles of the American government. It was held that inasmuch as the Monroe doctrine declared against the acquisition of American territory by foreign governments or the extension of the boundaries of foreign governments already established upon the American continent, the United States could not justly acquire territory on other continents, or islands contiguous thereto.

CHAPTER XLV.

LAWTON AND MACARTHUR EXPEDITIONS.

FILIPINO TOWNS CAPTURED.—MAY CAMPAIGN DEVELOPS AGGRESSIVE FIGHTING ON THE PART OF THE FILIPINOS.—DEWEY SAILS FOR HOME.

THE BEGINNING of May found Generals Lawton and MacArthur both in the field. In a hot fight near San Rafael, on May 1, Lawton lost one killed and five wounded. The following day he took up the march to Balinag. On the same day General Hale started at daybreak with the Iowa and South Dakota regiments, a squad of cavalry and two guns of the Utah battery from Calumpit, in a northeasterly direction to co-operate with the Macabbees, who had asked the Americans to arm them in order that they might fight the Tagals.

The Macabbees had already organized a company of Bolomen to guard the town, and were bringing Tagal prisoners to General MacArthur.

The capture of Balinag is thus described by General Otis:

"Manila, May 4.—To Adjutant-General, Washington: Situation as follows: Lawton holds Balinag, captured on the 2d inst. after a rapid movement from Angat, where supplies with wagon train, pack animals, and ration; he scattered the strongly intrenched enemy to the north and north-northwestward, capturing large amounts of food supplies, and has his detachments to north and eastward; his successful movement attended with great difficulty because of the character of the country, rain, and heat; he now covers our railway communication and will be supplied from Malolos. MacArthur's column concentrated; took up advance on San Fernandino at 6:30 this morning; do not apprehend stout resistance on the part of the enemy, who will probably leave the railroad and retire in a northeasterly direction to the north of Lawton. The destruction of the railroad near Calumpit necessitates dependence

on wagon transportation; enemy to south and east of Manila about 9,000, opposed by sufficient force under Ovenshine and Hall, his demonstrations thus far being promptly met by these officers with slight losses. Many requests received from outlying cities for protection against insurgents. Otis."

General Lawton established the first native municipal government in the Philippines at Balinag. A Filipino major, who was authorized to select a council, was elected at a public meeting of the natives.

While Lawton was taking Balinag, General MacArthur carried Santo Tomas, after encountering strong resistance. Brigadier-General Hale moved on the enemy's right and Brigadier-General Wheaton attacked the left in a daring charge, in which Colonel Funston again distinguished himself. The Kansan was wounded in the hand, and several other officers and enlisted men were also wounded.

Colonel Summers, with a part of the Oregon and Minnesota regiments and a gun of the Utah battery, took Moasim, on the right.

The Filipinos retreated toward San Isidro, and it was expected that they would make a stand at Arayat, at which place the whole of the rebel forces in the province of Panpanga were concentrating.

MacArthur's division then advanced to San Fernando and found that the place had been evacuated by the rebels, who left only a small detachment to cover their retreat by train. General MacArthur occupied the burning town without loss.

Detailed reports of the work of Major-General Lawton's expedition show that harder fighting took place than earlier accounts indicated. In the attack upon San Rafael the American forces were met with a heavy fire from a large number of rebels who were concealed in the jungle on all sides. It was only the adoption of the tactics followed in Indian fighting in the United States, every man for himself, that saved the division from great loss.

General Lawton, as usual, was at the head of his line with his staff. Scott's battery demolished a stone-fronted trench at short range.

The insurgent leaders, Gregorio and Pio del Pilar, who had 800 men in Balinag, retreated when General Lawton approached the town.

Chief of Scouts Young, with eleven men, entered Balinag ahead of the army, and rang the church bells to announce that they had possession of the city.

General Lawton, when attacking in force outside of Balinag, saw women and children in the rebel trenches, and sent Captain Case in advance with a white flag to warn the insurgents to remove the non-combatants. When within 500 yards of the trenches two volleys were fired at Captain Case's party.

Chief of Scouts Young, whose bravery at Balinag was most notable, served as an Indian scout under Major-General O. O. Howard in his campaign in the northwest in 1876. The work of Young's scouts was a feature of the expedition. On Wednesday 23 of them encountered a body of 300 Filipinos beyond Balinag and drove them until of the 150 rounds of ammunition which the scouts carried they had only fifteen rounds left. They were about to retire when Lieutenant Boyd, with a troop of the Fourth Cavalry, came up with them and chased the enemy into San Miguel.

There were 2,000 Spanish prisoners in the hands of the Filipinos at San Miguel. A Bolo chief and 100 men were captured at Balinag.

The strongest insurgent position yet known in the course of General Lawton's advance was developed May 9, at San Ildefonso, nine miles north of Balinag, by a reconnoitering party consisting of companies of the Thirteenth Minnesota and Second Oregon Regiments.

Heavy earthworks extended for a mile from a swamp on the left along a high ridge in front of the town, to the right, with flanking trenches, commanding a vast open country given up to rice fields.

The enemy, on the approach of our small force, opened a terrible fusillade, and the troops withdrew. Major Diggles of the Minnesota regiment was shot through the head.

The following day twenty American scouts, under the command of Captains Case and Berkheimer, supported by the Minnesota and Oregon troops, flanked the insurgents at San Ildefonso and captured the town.

The Filipinos were so terrified that, although they fired 20,000 rounds of ammunition, they only slightly wounded one scout.

The Americans killed one insurgent officer and wounded six men.

The insurgents retreated to San Miguel, six miles northward of San Ildefonso.

On May 17 Lawton's advance column captured the town of San Isidro. The expedition under Major Kobbe of the Third Artillery, consisting of the Seventeenth Infantry, a battalion of the Ninth and one battery of the First Artillery, left Calumpit at daybreak, marching up

the Rio Grande to General Lawton's division at Arayal. A flotilla of cascoes loaded with supplies also proceeded up the river. Both forces were convoyed by the "tinclad" army gunboats under Captain Grant.

Colonel Summers' command, consisting of the Twenty-Second Infantry on the left, the Minnesota Regiment in the center, and the Oregon and North Dakota regiments on the right, preceded by scouts and accompanied by Scott's Battery of Artillery, advanced from Baluarte at daylight. The troops first encountered the enemy two miles from San Isidro, the rebels retiring when our artillery opened fire. Just outside the town a rebel force, estimated to number 2,000 men, was intrenched. It made a slight resistance, but quitted its position when our troops turned its right flank.

The enemy's loss was fifteen men killed and twenty wounded. Our troops also captured three prisoners and many rifles. On the American side one soldier of the Oregon Regiment and one of the Minnesota Regiment were slightly wounded.

After capturing the town, Colonel Summers' troops continued their advance, pursuing the retreating rebels for several miles.

Before joining Lawton's column, Major Kobbe's brigade took the town of Candaha without opposition.

Captain Grant, who commanded the flotilla of convoying gunboats, steamed ahead of the other vessels with the Laguna de Bay. Upon reaching the town, which lies upon the right bank of the Rio Grande, he found white flags flying from all the windows.

A native school-teacher who could speak English came down to the river bank and offered to surrender the town to the American commander. He said the insurgent governor of the place and most of the inhabitants had fled into the bush to escape the Americans. He sent out a messenger, who called the frightened natives back—a large number of them returning.

Soon after the capture of the town fifty cascoes, loaded with natives and their belongings, came floating down the river. The people were returning to their homes down the river.

Up to this time the rebel forces had been fleeing before the American troops like jack-rabbits, but they suddenly assumed the aggressive. General MacArthur's column continued to hold San Fernando, the abandoned Filipino capital. On May 24 the insurgents attacked his outposts.

General MacArthur, with two battalions of the Montana Volunteers, two battalions of the Kansas Regiment under General Funston, and two guns of the Utah Battery, one Hotchkiss and one Gatling, moved against the rebels, who were occupying the trenches vacated at the fall of San Fernando.

The Kansas troops deployed to the right and the Montana Regiment to the extreme left, while the battery formed in the center of the line.

After an obstinate resistance, the enemy retreated. They were flanked by the Kansas men and driven toward the Montanas, but escaped, leaving their dead and wounded behind. The American loss was one killed and twelve wounded. The Filipino loss was thirty killed and sixty wounded. Ninety were taken prisoners, with 100 stands of arms.

On the same day it was reported that General Lawton's column had reached Malolos.

Two companies of the Third Infantry and two companies of the Twenty-Second Infantry, forming his rear guard, returning from San Miguel to Balinag, escorted a signal party which was picking up wire laid with General Lawton's expedition, found that the insurgents had re-occupied the country, and hard fighting followed from daylight until the Americans camped at night. But the troops completed their work, though harassed by the enemy. One American was killed and fourteen were wounded. The troops captured twenty prisoners and thirty rifles.

General Lawton's expedition marched 120 miles in twenty days, had twenty-two fights, captured twenty-eight towns, destroyed 300,000 bushels of rice, and only lost six men killed and thirty-one wounded. On the other hand, General Lawton estimated that his troops killed 400 insurgents and wounded double that number.

On May 28 General Otis notified the Washington authorities that American troops had taken formal possession of Sulu Islands without a conflict, and that the insurgents of Mindanao, the second largest of the Philippines, would not oppose American occupation of Zamboanga, just evacuated by the Spaniards. Following is the text of the dispatch:

"Manila, May 28.—Two battalions of Twenty-Third Infantry in quiet possession of Jolo. Spanish troops withdrawn from Zamboanga after battle with insurgents, with severe loss to the latter. Spanish loss nine killed, twenty-seven wounded, among whom Commanding-General Mon-

tero; died from wounds; buried here to-day. Insurgents used rifles, artillery and ammunition captured from gunboats, expending major part of ammunition. Conference followed between General Rios, who went from Manila to withdraw troops, and insurgents. Latter stated to him would not oppose landing Americans, but would accept conditions in Luzon. Spanish troops withdrawn now here; depart for Spain to-morrow.

"Feeble attack by insurgents on inhabitants southeast portion Negros necessitated sending battalion troops from Manila there. Will soon restore order

"Insurgent falsehoods circulated in southern islands of overwhelming insurgent victories in Luzon keep up excitement in that section among the more ignorant classes, although intelligent people know American arms have never met reverse, and they call for United States protection.

"Have turned over to navy for use on coast of southern islands a number of purchased Spanish gunboats, from which excellent results expected."

These islands were long regarded as an archipelago separate from the Philippines, and in the summer of 1898 Germany was suspected of seeking to get them from Spain. In order to leave no doubt about their ownership, the American peace commissioners were careful to draw the geographical lines of the eastern cession in the peace treaty so as to include the Sulus and prevent any other power from establishing itself on them. For three centuries after the Spaniards had subdued Luzon the Sultan of Sulu kept the Spaniards at bay, but Jolo, his capital, was captured in 1851, and in 1877 he was forced to acknowledge Spanish sovereignty over his entire dominion. A royal decree was issued transforming the sultanship into a quasi-military government, but the Sultan retained much power, and Spain exercised a sort of protectorate. She established a garrison at Jolo in 1880, which was followed by others on the smaller islands.

The feeble attack in Negros, to which General Otis alludes in his dispatch, was as follows:

The cable ship Recorder, while picking up the cable between the Island of Negros and Cebu, went to the town of Escalante, on the former island. She landed a party in a launch, consisting of the com-

mander, second officer, and several of the crew, and also Captain Tilley of the Signal Corps, who was present on board the ship to observe the cable operations.

A flag of truce had been hoisted by the rebels, who waited until the party had landed, and then treacherously poured a murderous volley upon them.

Captain Tilley and one of the men at once threw themselves into the water. The commander of the Recorder, running a great risk, managed to reach the launch and put off from the bank to save it from being captured by the rebels.

Meanwhile a rain of bullets were falling all around the fugitives. The second mate was picked up by the launch just as he was sinking, but was alive. He said that the last he saw of Captain Tilley the latter was swimming feebly by his side.

The steamer was far out from shore, but those on board could see that the other Malay seamen were caught by the rebels, flogged, and then cut to pieces.

The ship returned to Iloilo, stopped, and within an hour troops were dispatched to the scene of the attack.

Captain Tilley's dead body was afterward recovered floating in the water.

While these various battles and skirmishes were being fought efforts were renewed, on the part of General Luna's envoys, for a cessation of hostilities.

Major Manuel Arguelles and Lieutenant Jose Bernal, the envoys, were received by General Otis on May 2, but no understanding was reached.

On May 22 Professor Schurman, head of the United States Philippine commission, submitted the following written proposition to the Filipino envoys named by the Filipino Congress:

"While the final decision as to the form of government is in the hands of congress, the President, under his military powers, pending the action of congress, stands ready to offer the following form of government:

"A governor-general, to be appointed by the President; a cabinet, to be appointed by the governor-general; all the principal judges to be appointed by the President; the heads of departments and judges to be

either Americans or Filipinos, or both; and also a general advisory council, its members to be chosen by the people by a form of suffrage to be hereafter carefully determined upon.

"The President earnestly desires that bloodshed cease, and that the people of the Philippines at an early date enjoy the largest measure of self-government compatible with peace and order."

Gozaga, president of the Filipino commission, replied that nothing could be worse than Spanish rule, and admitted that the form of government proposed was liberal. However, no agreement was reached, and on May 25 the envoys were escorted outside the lines.

The re-establishment of the Philippine courts was an important event in the current history of those islands. The order was issued May 29, and revived all the Spanish system not conflicting with the sovereignty of the United States.

Caytuna Arralano was named as Chief Justice. The associates of the civil branch were Manuel Araulla, Colonel Crowder, and Gregoria Aralita. The justices of the criminal branch were Raymundo Molliza, Ambrosio Rianzares, Julio Lorento, Major Young, and Captain Birkhimer. The attorney-general—Florentio Torres. This corresponds with the American Supreme Court.

The oath prescribed begins: "I recognize and accept the supreme authority of the United States of America," etc.

The Filipino members were all prominent lawyers. Arralano was the leader of his profession in the islands. In the early stages of the Filipino movement he was Aguinaldo's principal adviser. Aralita was a member of Aguinaldo's first cabinet. Molliza was president of the insurgent government at Iloilo. Torres was the leader of the local committee working with the commission to conciliate the insurrectionists.

Spanish was made the official language of the courts.

There was agitation among the local British and American business men, and American lawyers who came to the Philippines to make fortunes, to have the English code and language adopted, but Major-General Otis concluded that it would be unwise, even if practicable, to upset long usage. He thought it best to give the natives courts in the language to which they have been accustomed. The Spanish salaries proved a stumbling-block to obtaining good men, the highest being only $2,500—the Spanish judges receiving fees, which were abolished.

A history of the May campaign in the Philippines would be incomplete without a reference to the departure of Admiral Dewey from Manila, which took place on May 20. The Admiral sailed from the scene of his great victory in his flagship, Olympia. As she steamed away the Oregon, Baltimore, and Concord fired an admiral's salute. At the first shot the band on the flagship's afterdeck played a lively air, and her white-clad sailors crowded the decks and gave a tremendous cheer.

As the Olympia passed the Oregon the crew of that battle-ship gave nine cheers for the Olympians, who responded by throwing their caps so high that dozens of them were left bobbing in the wake of the cruiser.

Then followed the noisiest half hour known in that harbor since the battle which linked its name with that of Dewey.

The din of guns and brass bands echoed through the smoke, a fleet of steam launches shrieked their whistles, the musicians of the Baltimore played "Home, Sweet Home," her flags signaled "Good-by," and those of the Oregon said "Pleasant voyage."

The merchant vessels dipped their flags, the ladies on the decks of the vessels of the fleet waved handkerchiefs, and the great black British cruiser Powerful, which lay the farthest out, saluted the Olympia. The latter's band played "God Save the Queen," and to this the crew of the Powerful responded with hearty cheers for the Olympia.

The last music heard from Admiral Dewey's ship was "Auld Lang Syne," while the guns from the forts at Cavite and from the Monterey, on guard off Paranaque, too far to be audible, puffed white clouds of smoke.

The Olympia was disappearing past Corregidor Island when a battery before the walled city spoke Manila's last word of farewell.

Admiral Dewey sat on the deck of the Olympia and received the adieus of his friends during most of the day.

Before his departure Admiral Dewey gave out the following significant interview:

"I leave Manila to-day. I go with less regret because I believe that this insurrection is breaking up. The repeated arrivals in our lines of emissaries sent from insurgent headquarters can only mean one thing. They point to the inevitable end.

"Now, had I consulted my pride, I would have remained here until

peace was finally established. But there are other things in a man's life besides his pride to be considered. My health, for instance, has been gradually undermined by the long strain placed upon it and by the constant care that has been necessarily imposed upon me for so long a time.

"And of course we are all glad to get home.

"One of the things that touched me the most, among all the many expressions of warm feeling from the people at home, was the raising of a subscription in my native state—it was started at Boston, I believe—to build a bronze statue of me, to be placed in the statehouse at Montpelier, opposite the statue of Ethan Allen.

"Many a time as a boy have I looked at that statue of Ethan Allen in wonder and admiration.

"The inscription said, if I remember rightly, 'Surrender in the name of the Great Jehovah and the continental congress.'

"The way I feel is that no greater compliment could be paid me than the erection of my statue in such a place in my own village, you know."

Admiral Dewey was succeeded by Rear Admiral John C. Watson, the command of the fleet being temporarily left to Captain Barker, of the Boston.

CHAPTER XLVI.

LIVELIEST BATTLES OF THE WAR.

GENERALS LAWTON AND MACARTHUR HAVE A SERIES OF LIVELY ENGAGEMENTS DURING MONTH OF JUNE—ASSASSINATION OF GENERAL LUNA—DIPLOMATIC NEGOTIATIONS WITH SPAIN RENEWED.

THE JUNE campaign in the Philippines was characterized by more activity—more fighting that could properly be designated as battles—than any other month since the breaking out of the rebellion. The insurgents seemed to gather hope by the prolongation of hostilities, and, instead of being always on the defensive, they became more often the aggressors.

Lawton's division, which had returned to Manila, bore the brunt of the early fighting. The insurgents had closed in around the city and the Pasig river, and it was deemed advisable to drive them back and, if possible, hem them in and destroy them. Two battalions of the Washington troops, under Colonel Whalley, on board canoes, were towed from Pasig to Morong on June 4, and landed under cover of a well-directed fire from the "tinclad" army gunboats, Napidan and Covadonga.

The rebels, who were intrenched in the outskirts of the town, reserved their fire until the troops were ashore and in the open. The American artillery opened fire on the insurgents and drove them from their positions, killing nine of them and wounding five. The Washington troops then took the town, the rebels fleeing to the hills.

While the Americans were on their way to Morong the insurgents opened fire from a shore battery at Ancona, their first shot striking the Cavadonga's awning aft at a range of 3,500 yards.

The Napidan also was fired at.

Meanwhile, with a view to surrounding the enemy, Hall's brigade, consisting of the Second Oregon, a battalion of the Second Wyoming,

four troops of the Fourth Cavalry, two battalions of the Fourth Infantry, one battalion of the Ninth Infantry, the first six companies of the First Colorado, and two mountain guns, moved along the crest of the mountain on the west side of Manquina.

They swept down the Antipolo Valley, their objective point being the rebel town of Antipolo. They met with stout resistance from General Pio del Pilar's forces, but their heavy skirmish line carried all before them. This was made up of the Oregonians, the artillery, and the Fourth Infantry.

Their movement was so rapid that the Filipinos had not time to defend or destroy Antipolo. It was captured by 8:30 o'clock in the morning. A large quantity of arms and ammunition was seized. No prisoners were taken, Hall's men simply driving the rebels off in much the same way as a police detachment disperses a mob.

Pio del Pilar's army fled into the mountains, and it is supposed that they are now at Bosoboso.

Hall's brigade then marched to Taytay, which offered more suitable camping facilities, and joined Truman's detachment.

By this movement Hall and Truman had cleaned up the Antipolo and Manquina valleys, and after they had gone through there not a Filipino was left.

The American loss was only two killed and nine wounded.

The American forces occupied the peninsula and General Hall's column encamped at Morong.

Major Truman, marching across the Binangonan, found it impracticable to form a cordon, and the insurgents, with the exception of a hundred or two, escaped through the mountains after Gen. Pio del Pilar, dragging their battery by buffaloes at night. The Washington troops returned to Pasig.

The expedition showed the difficulty which is encountered by an army which must depend upon wagon trains in catching barefooted bandits in their own mountains, and also gave proof that the rebels did not intend to fight battles.

General Hall left Santa Teresa June 5 and marched 12 miles to Morong, up and down rocky hills and through woods and swamps. Scores of his men fell out, owing to the extreme heat, and were left to follow as best they could. The head of the army arrived at Morong at noon, having exchanged only a few shots with insurgent skirmishers on the way.

Groups of stragglers followed all day, but the force was 200 smaller than when it started. The men were almost 36 hours without rations, and it was considerable of an achievement for them to cover the ground they did.

En route to Morong the Americans met flocks of Filipinos and flags of truce, many of the young men having the bearing of soldiers. Many discarded uniforms were found in the houses, apparently those of soldiers who had escaped by changing their costumes from "insurrecto" to "amigo," and walking boldly past the army, which had expected to corral them. Few were found about Morong. One member of the Washington regiment was killed and two were wounded in the encounter with the outposts.

General Lawton, on board a gunboat, searching the coast for Major Truman, stopped at Binangonan, opposite Morong. The natives immediately ran up a flag of truce and a delegation in canoes put off and greeted the Americans with the usual protestations of friendship.

Colonel Truman's detachment, proceeding along the Morong peninsula, captured Angono and Binangonan. The rebels escaped to the northeast, slipping past General Hall's brigade.

On the preceding Saturday the rebels made a night attack upon the friendly town of Macabebe, and, after driving the inhabitants out, burned the place.

General Hall's brigade left Morong on June 7, marching along the lake to Taytay. The troops encountered practically no opposition on entering several small towns, though a few insurgent sharpshooters hung about the flanks of the brigade.

Morong was considered an important port, and was garrisoned by the North Dakota regiment and the Fourth cavalry.

The object and result of the movement against Morong are set forth in the following official dispatch from General Otis:

"Manila, June 8.—Adjutant-General, Washington: Result movements Morong province was to drive insurgents into mountains, capturing Antipolo and other towns in that section, with point of land projecting into bay. They retreated and scattered before our advance, leaving 25 dead on field, our loss four killed and few wounded, mostly slight. City of Morong, only on land route on bay, garrisoned, all other troops withdrawn. Inhabitants of provinces profess friendship, ask protection; large numbers wish to enter Manila; refuse, as city popula-

tion increasing too rapidly. Leading natives throughout island, including active insurgent leaders, seek permission to send families to Manila; considered only place of personal security. OTIS."

General Lawton's next move against the insurgents was on June 10, when at daybreak a force of 4,500 men under Gens. Lawton, Wheaton and Ovenshine, advanced from San Pedro Macati, sweeping the country between the Bay of Manila and Bay lake, south of Manila. By noon the country had been cleared almost to Paranaque. The Americans lost two officers killed and 21 soldiers wounded.

The rebels resisted desperately at the stronger of their positions, and left 50 dead in the trenches. Many more wounded were left behind by the rebels in their retreat.

The heat during the day was overpowering, and there were many prostrations of American soldiers from that cause.

General Lawton's force consisted of two battalions of the Twenty-first and Ninth infantry, six companies of the Colorado volunteers, and a detachment of artillery.

The Nevada cavalry was under General Wheaton and the Thirteenth and Fourteenth infantry, the Fourth cavalry, and a detachment of light artillery were under General Ovenshine.

It was scarcely dawn when the troops, in a long, silent procession, wound up the hillside behind the American trenches and formed a skirmish line. Concealed in the jungle, the advance rebel outposts fired a few shots before being seen. The opposing forces occupied two ranges of crescent-shaped hills.

The artillery, the Colorado infantry, and the Nevada cavalry swung around the hilltop of the left and opened the battle at 6:30. The rebels made no response from the hills and the Colorado men cautiously advanced through the thick grass until they were confronted by a trench, from which a few weak volleys were fired. A spirited response followed, and a charge into the trench found it to be deserted.

In the meantime, part of the Thirteenth and Fourteenth regiments formed in skirmish line, extending a mile to the right, and supported by the rest of the regiments, swept down the valley and up the hillside toward another trench. Approaching the morass seriously hampered the Fourteenth, and the rebels, taking advantage of this, poured a galling fire upon them for 30 minutes. The Fourteenth was twice compelled to

withdraw for the purpose of finding a safe crossing in the swamp. Finally the trench was infiladed on both flanks.

The rebels fled to the woods and sustained severe loss.

General Lawton pushed his entire command south, through the center of the isthmus, until a few miles south of Paranaque, when he swung around and halted on account of the heat.

During the march Americans were prostrated on all sides, owing to lack of water and exposure to the sun. It is estimated that 40 per cent of the troops were exhausted.

The double-turreted monitor, Monadnock, and three other vessels shelled Paranaque the same morning, and the rebels promptly evacuated the place.

General Lawton occupied Paranaque and the villages of Malibay, to the north, and Las Pinas to the south, preparatory to moving upon Bacoor, whence the rebels fled during the night.

The rebels deserted Paranaque and the trenches south of Manila at midnight, finding the Americans behind them, and escaped along the coast. Only alleged amigos were found in Paranaque.

Among the victims of the battle of Paranaque was Captain Henry Nichols, commanding the Monitor Monadnock. The Monadnock had been lying off Paranaque for two months, under fire from the rebels almost daily. The heat had been intense and the officers and men of the Monadnock suffered greatly. The commander-in-chief offered to retire the Monadnock from this trying duty and replace her by another ship, but Captain Nichols preferred to remain, declaring that he did not want to leave his post until Paranaque fell and the coast from there to Cavite was cleared of rebels.

The heat on Saturday was most severe, and the monitor was engaged all day in shelling the trenches at Paranaque, the rebels fleeing south through Las Pinas. Captain Nichols was overcome by the heat at noon and retired to his cabin, where he received frequent reports of the operations and gave directions for several hours. He became much worse at 3 o'clock, lost consciousness, and expired at 5 in the afternoon.

The insurgents again proved their facility as dodgers. Between 3,000 and 4,000 warriors, who seemed destined to be captured, disappeared, the majority slid away under cover of the night after fighting the Americans all day. Some others came to meet the American troops with protestations of friendship.

The Thirteenth infantry lost one man killed and six wounded; the Ninth infantry, one man killed and five wounded, the Fourteenth infantry, three wounded, and the First Colorado volunteer regiment, 11 wounded.

Saturday's work was the hardest the American army had seen.

About 3 o'clock in the afternoon General Wheaton's brigade, headed by General Lawton, who, in his white clothing and helmet, on a big, black horse, was a shining mark for the enemy's sharpshooters, circled to the south of Las Pinas, encountering a large force of Filipinos in the shelter of the trees.

General Lawton had a narrow escape. In the first volley of the enemy the horses of three of his staff officers were shot from under them. The Colorado regiment bore the brunt of this attack, and dispersed the Filipinos.

Hardly had they finished off that lot when a large force appeared in the rear, which the Ninth infantry and a part of the Colorado regiment drove away. By this time nearly the whole division was around Las Pinas.

The Americans camped for the night south of the town and in the midst of a heavy rain.

At 6 o'clock Sunday morning General Wheaton advanced upon Las Pinas with a troop of cavalry, the Twenty-first infantry, the Colorado regiment, part of the Ninth infantry, and two mountain guns, crossing two streams and entering the town without firing a shot. He then advanced upon Paranaque.

The women and children, and, for that matter, many men remained in the towns. No houses were destroyed, though many were torn by the shells from the warships. Everywhere the Americans found white flags flying.

The Filipinos lost about 50 killed, about 350 wounded, and 20 taken prisoners.

The whole country was networked with trenches, and the enemy scurried from shelter to shelter.

On the following day General Lawton unexpectedly stirred up the liveliest engagement of the war south of Las Pinas, upon which occasion American field guns were engaged in the first artillery duel against a Filipino battery, concealed in the jungle.

Companies F and I of the Twenty-first infantry were nearly sur-

rounded by a large body of insurgents, but the Americans cut their way out with heavy loss.

The United States turret ship Monadnock and the gunboats Helena and Zafiro trained their batteries on Bakoor and the rebel trenches near Las Pinas all the morning. Bakoor was once on fire, but the natives stopped the spread of the flames.

During the night an insurgent cannon was fired three times at the Americans on the outskirts of Las Pinas.

General Lawton took a battalion of the Fourteenth regiment and two companies of the Twenty-first regiment to locate the rebel battery, and then two guns of the Sixth artillery and four mountain guns were planted against it at 600 yards distance. The rebels had a large gun, from which they were firing home-made canister, loaded with nails, and two smaller guns. Their shooting was most accurate. The first lot of canister burst directly in front of Scott's guns and another shattered the legs of a private in the Fourteenth infantry. Several shots struck the edge of the town.

The country traversed was as bad as it is possible to imagine, being mainly lagoons, mud and water fringed with bamboos. As soon as the fighting opened the Americans were attacked by hidden riflemen on all sides, even the amigos or "friendly" natives in the houses of the town shooting into their rear.

The companies of the Twenty-first regiment, skirmishing along the beach with amigo guides, found apparently a handful of rebels, who retreated. The men of the Twenty-first followed, and suddenly the rebels opened a terrific fire on the troops from the sides and rear.

The soldiers withdrew to the water's edge, finding what shelter they could, and were picked off rapidly.

After their ammunition was nearly exhausted the companies of the Twenty-first retreated, but General Lawton dashed down and rallied the men. A little group made a desperate stand, General Lawton, Major Starr and Lieutenants Donovan and Donnelly taking rifles from the wounded men and firing at the enemy, bringing down some of the rebel sharpshooters from a tree.

Finally their cartridges were all gone and they were forced to break through the enemy's flank, carrying the wounded to the main body of the troops.

Lieutenant Donovan, whose leg was broken, floundered for a mile

through a bog after leading his men in the face of a greatly superior force.

General Lawton ceased fighting until reinforcements could be brought up. Two battalions of the Fourteenth regiment and one battalion of the Ninth regiment were hurried to the front, and in the afternoon the battle was resumed.

The Monadnock anchored close to the shore, and her heavy guns pounded the rebels continuously, while the smaller warships, steaming along the shore, poured bullets from their rapid-fire guns at the enemy.

The Filipino force engaged appears to have been the largest and best organized body of men which has met our troops. The Americans were compelled to advance along narrow roads and over small bridges commanded by earthworks ten feet thick. The only means of crossing the Zapote river was by a small bridge, which the Filipinos commanded with trenches spreading V-shaped, where they could concentrate their fire on the bridge. They also had the advantage of the trees and jungle, so the Americans could hardly see ahead.

When the battle was resumed at 1 o'clock with the re-enforcements, our battery having silenced the enemy's guns, the Americans, wading waist deep in the mud of the salt flats, slowly—and pouring steady volleys of musketry at the rebels—drove their opponents beyond the river. Then the two armies lay facing each other across the deep stream, the enemy practically out of sight, while the men in blue and khaki lay in the main bushes, many of them without any shelter, for three hours, without a moment's cessation in the firing, driving bullets at the enemy as fast as they could load. The crash of a thousand rifles blended into a continuous roar was vastly different from the intermittent skirmishlike rattle of most of the engagements.

By one battalion after another, General Lawton summoned the reserves from Las Pinas until only enough troops were left in the town to prevent the Filipinos from attacking the Americans in the rear, which was feared, as they were creeping around our left through the woods, delivering a flanking fire which put a great strain upon the endurance of the Americans, who were floundering in the mud across the river, while on the right the Filipino sharpshooters, hidden in the trees, were peppering our men. But, thanks to the poor marksmanship of the rebels, our loss was not as great as it would have been if the Filipinos had shot straight.

An army, however, has seldom fought under a greater handicap or more courageously than did the regulars, a majority of whom were, comparatively speaking, recruits, who could have been pardoned for retiring, in the face of such a fierce fire, from their exposed positions.

The Fourteenth regiment lay to the right of the bridge and in front of them was the Twelfth regiment, with the Ninth on the right and the Twenty-first up the road, facing the bridge which was the key to the situation. On the bridge were the bodies of two Americans who had attempted to rush across, and many wounded men were carried from the open ground before the bridge.

After firing in volleys for a short time, the Americans were ordered to fire when and where they could see the enemy. It was every man for himself, and the best our men could do was to aim at the faint mists arising from the rebels' smokeless powder. General Lawton, though exhausted by the morning's fight, rallied by sheer will power, and was the commanding figure of the battle. He went along the lines directing and encouraging the troops. General Wheaton and General Ovenshine were equally courageous. In fact, the generals were among the few men on the battlefield who refused to take shelter under the hottest fire.

The only approach to the fighting ground was by a narrow, winding road, where the rebels' bullets dropped thickly, wounding several of our men.

At 4 o'clock there was an hour's lull in the fighting, and an artillery sergeant galloped back to where two guns of the mountain battery were waiting in reserve, and shouted: "Bring up those guns!" The sergeant then tumbled exhausted from his horse.

Twenty wounded men were carried to a cascoe (native boat) waiting on the beach, which was rowed to Paranaque.

In the general advance on the second river, a mile further on, a big fight developed on the right.

At 5:20 o'clock the Ninth regiment came up from the beach along the dikes which meet the road. These were lined with thick brush a mile from Bakoor and ahead of and to the right of our lines.

Suddenly the retreating enemy opened a heavy cross-fire from the left through the woods.

Two guns of the Sixth artillery, with detachments of the Fourteenth and Twenty-first infantry, came at double-quick time to the rescue in a long skirmish line and drove the insurgents further back.

Before dark the Fourteenth infantry swam the Zapote river, charged and carried the trenches, a heavy fusillade of artillery preparing the way and covering the crossing.

The insurgents broke for the woods before the Fourteenth reached them.

Almost at the same time the Ninth and Twelfth crossed a bar of the sea and came upon their left flank at a point where a body of marines with Maxim guns landed under protection of the ship's batteries, and fired upon the enemy's left rear with a demoralizing effect.

The Twenty-first crossed the river by a bridge, as soon as it could be mended.

Sixty-five dead Filipinos were found in the trenches, most of them shot through the head. Several five-inch smooth-bore guns were captured with ammunition marked "U. S. Navy Yard."

After crossing the river the troops were withdrawn, with the exception of the Ninth and Twenty-first, these regiments being left with four guns to guard the bridge.

As they were being formed into companies the insurgents commenced to fire volleys from the bamboo jungle 300 yards away.

The regiments formed into line rapidly and coolly, though under fire, and, cheering, rushed to the woods, driving the enemy a mile away, the Filipinos disputing every foot. The Fourteenth encamped across the river, the men caring for many of the Filipino wounded. Eight prisoners were captured. The majority of the Filipinos wore red uniforms.

This battlefield was formerly the scene of several of the greatest struggles between the Spaniards and the Filipinos. The Zapote was considered impregnable, and hundreds of Spaniards and Filipinos have been killed while fighting over the same bridge in former contests for its possession. In June, 1897, General Pio del Pilar and General Trias turned the scale of war on the side of the Filipinos by deserting the Spanish army there on the eve of a decisive battle, carrying native militia with them, and thereby breaking the chain of defense around Manila.

The Filipinos retreated several miles southward to the strongly fortified town of Imus. The shelling by the American warships drove the rebels from Bakoor, so the Americans controlled several more miles of coast.

General Lawton, with his staff and a troop of the Fourth cavalry, started to ascertain the nature of the insurgents' position. He rode five

miles along the coast to Bakoor without discovering the enemy. He found the town full of white flags, but there were no soldiers there. The women and children who had fled to the woods during the bombardment were camping in the ruins of their homes.

The shells had almost knocked the town to pieces. The big church was wrecked and many buildings were ruined. Even the trees and shrubbery were torn as by a hailstorm.

Several hundred women and children came into the American lines for refuge, and the road from Bakoor was covered all day long with processions of them on foot and in carts, driving animals and carrying goods on their heads.

The appearance of the battlefield testified to the fierceness of yesterday's fighting. The trees along the river between the lines are almost torn down by bullets. The American officers estimate that 1,000 insurgents were killed and wounded during the engagement.

The American loss was ten killed and fifty wounded.

Captain Cable, of General Wheaton's staff, with three companies of the Twenty-first regiment, reconnoitered in the direction of Imus. The rebels, who were apparently expecting an attack, retired, leaving behind them twenty Spanish prisoners, who joined the Americans.

The rebels went to the mountains along the lake.

The mayor of Imus delivered the town up to General Lawton, saying that they desired peace and to be friendly with the Americans. He declared that peace would exist were it not for Aguinaldo's cut-throat band.

A contemplated reception to the Americans at Imus was spoiled by the advent of an insurgent colonel, who is said to have threatened to have the populace killed if they did not leave. Few stayed in the town.

The Fourteenth infantry and one battery of artillery garrisoned the place.

Tons of concealed saltpeter and thousands of pounds of antiquated artillery ammunition and brown powder were discovered in the powder-house. Large quantities had been thrown in the river.

The panic-stricken insurgents gave up several of their best defensive positions in their wild flight southward. Cavite Veijo, Aguinaldo's home, Noveleta and the entire region where the Filipinos once thrashed the Spanish were deserted after the one battle at Zapote river.

In the meantime, General MacArthur had been busy. After cutting

the railroad and telegraph at Apalit, seven miles south, for the purpose of severing connection, the rebels attacked General MacArthur's lines at San Fernando at 1:30 on the morning of June 16.

They met with an unexpectedly warm reception, and were repulsed with a loss of seventy-five killed, thirty prisoners and many wounded.

The rebel force, estimated to have numbered 5,000 men, advanced stealthily from the jungle north of the city, and then divided with the evident purpose of surrounding the Americans.

The outposts of the Iowa regiment discovered the enemy and retired to their lines, where the entire division awaited in an intrenched position. The Iowa regiment and the Kansas regiment received the first shock of the attack.

Reserving their fire until the enemy was within 600 yards, the first volley of the Americans hit the rebels, who returned the fire wildly, the rest of their line failing to advance. The Americans, who thoroughly enjoyed the novelty of the situation, awaiting an attack, sallied forth, and the insurgents thereupon turned and fled into the jungle.

Our loss was fourteen men wounded, and the majority of them are only slightly hurt.

General Funston's brigade of Kansas, Montana's and General Hale's brigade, the Seventeenth regiment and the Iowa regiment, constituted the force engaged.

Aguinaldo personally conducted the attack, and preparations were made for several days to bring forward troops from Candaba and others, from Daguipan, were transported by rail.

Along the front of the Kansas regiment thirty-nine rebel dead were counted.

The first news of the Filipino advance was reported by a telegraph operator, who was sent to the bridge at Apalit to ascertain the cause of a break in one of the wires. He was compelled to beat a hasty retreat under fire.

On the same day the American commander at Manila learned of the assassination of General Antonio Luna.

A Spanish officer, who had been a prisoner in the hands of the rebels and who was released by Aguinaldo, came through our lines to Manila. He claimed to have been a witness of the assassination of General Luna. According to his story the relations between the two Filipino leaders had been strained to the breaking point because of Luna's attempts to

assume control of affairs, and the final rupture was forced by Aguinaldo issuing secret orders to the provincial governments.

Luna thereupon notified Aguinaldo, demanding copies of the documents, and Aguinaldo replied curtly that Luna was a general of the army and that the civil government did not concern him. Luna, on opening the reply at his headquarters, in the presence of his officers, exclaimed hotly:

"He will be dead to-morrow."

One officer, who was friendly to Aguinaldo, hastened to warn him, and Aguinaldo called together twenty trusted soldiers, fellow townsmen of his, and stationed them around his house, with instructions to kill anyone attempting to enter, regardless of rank.

Luna appeared the next day and saw Aguinaldo at the window. A member of the guard said:

"Aguinaldo has gone to inspect the troops."

Luna then exclaimed: "You are a liar," drew his revolver, struck the guard, and tried to force an entrance into the house.

Before he could use his revolver one of the guards bayonetted him, another shot him in the back and others stabbed him. In all he had twenty wounds. Luna's aide-de-camp was killed in the same way.

After the Americans withdrew from Candaba the rebels returned and have wreaked vengeance upon those who befriended the Americans. They slaughtered the natives who surrendered the town and displayed their heads on poles in the public square.

The troops commanded by General Wheaton entered Perez Das Marinas on June 20 without opposition, except upon the part of small bodies of rebels, who inflicted no losses upon the Americans. But on the previous day a desperate encounter took place between that town and Imus. Surrounded by a thousand of the enemy, six miles from reenforcements and with a thousand more insurgents moving rapidly down on their left to make their annihilation complete, the first battalion of the Fourth infantry, Major Bubb commanding—in all 300 Americans—fought their way back from Perez Das Marinas three miles toward their military base at Imus, where the rest of the Fourth came to their support.

Reports were received that Das Marinas had been deserted by the insurgents. The alcalde of the place went to Imus and formally surrendered his town.

The houses along the roadside were filled with amigos, and the battalion advanced confidently until within three-fourths of a mile of Das Marinas, when they discovered the enemy, paralleling the road at a long distance on both sides, and practically surrounding the little force.

Natives began firing from houses in the rear and natives in white clothes were captured with guns in their hands.

The whole scheme was to wipe out the small body of American troops, and it might have succeeded but for the marvelous courage of the troops and the officers.

The fight began at noon and the troops silenced the enemy's fire in one hour. The Americans on retiring discovered that they were surrounded.

The skirmish lines crowded the Filipinos back toward Imus, while outflankers were on the right and left.

Under a flanking fire the rear guard was desperately holding the enemy's rushes in check. An incessant and galling fire poured upon the main road, and men were falling everywhere. The ambulance was filled, and carts were pressed into service, loaded with the wounded, and dragged by hand by the prisoners. Two of our dead were left behind.

At 3 o'clock it looked as if nothing could save the battalion.

At 4 o'clock they had pressed the enemy off, and on the right they were behind them.

Fifteen minutes later Hassard, the aid of General Wheaton, pushed through alone with the news that General Wheaton was coming to their relief.

The men, with a cheer, wildly went for the Filipinos. Then General Wheaton found a force of the enemy, a thousand strong, moving to intercept the battalion along a road that runs at right angles. He opened with shrapnel fire and mowed down the insurgents. He then cleared the left and advanced rapidly.

At 4:30 he had the enemy in full rout and had gained a mile and a half of the lost ground.

The regiment bivouacked at last in rice fields, and food and ammunition were rushed forward to them.

The day's fighting developed the most determined and best planned resistance yet made by the Filipinos.

The situation in the islands on June 26 was outlined by General Otis in the following cablegram:

MORRO, SANTIAGO, FROM WESTERN BATTERY.

MORRO CASTLE, SANTIAGO, FROM THE SEA.

WRECK OF THE SPANISH VESSEL "REINA MERCEDES" AT THE MOUTH OF SANTIAGO HARBOR.

CUBANS FIRING IN THE BUSH.

How We Made the Spaniards Form Line of Battle.

GOMEZ SCOUTS.

A GROUP OF ROUGH RIDERS IN CAMP.

And now came the Bull-fighters, dancing lightly with all sorts of graceful and fantastic antics, each man moving his two darts, crossing them above his head, gesticulating with them as if they were magical instruments and finally running up lightly in front of the bull, planting one dextrously at each side of his neck in the very moment of his lowering his head to toss his new enemy.

SPANISH BULL FIGHT IN CUBA.

THE FLOWER OF CASTILIAN SOCIETY IN CUBA.

A BULL FIGHTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO SLAY THE BULL.

AN EXCITING MOMENT IN A BULL FIGHT.

DRAGGING THE BULL OUT OF THE ARENA.

"Manila, June 26.—Adjutant-General, Washington: Rainy season. Little inland campaigning possible in Luzon. We occupy large portion of Tagalog country; lines stretching from Imus south to San Fernando north nearly 60 miles, and to eastward into Laguna province. Insurgent armies have suffered great losses and are scattered; only large force held together about 4,000 in Tarlac province and northern Pampanga. Their scattered forces in bands of 50 to 500 in other portions of Luzon; in Cavite and Batangas provinces could assemble possibly 2,000, though demoralized from recent defeat; mass of people terrorized by insurgent soldiers; desire peace and American protection; no longer flee on approach of our troops unless forced by insurgents, but gladly welcome them; no recent burning of towns; population within our lines becoming dense; taking up land cultivation exclusively; kept out of Manila as much as possible, as city population is becoming too great to be cared for.

"Natives in southeast Luzon are combining to drive out insurgents; only hope insurgent leaders is United States' aid. They proclaim near overthrow present administration, to be followed by their independence and recognition by United States. This is the influence which enables them to hold out; much contention prevails among them.

"No civil government remains; trade with ports, not in our possession, former source insurgent revenue, now interdicted. Not certain of wisdom of this policy, as people in those parts are without supply of food; merchants suffering losses; meditate restoring trade privileges, although insurgents reap benefits. Courts here in successful operation under direction of able Filipinos.

"Affairs in other islands comparatively quiet, awaiting results in Luzon. All anxious for trade, and repeated calls for American troops received. Am giving attention to Jolo archipelago and Palawan islands. Our troops have worked to limit of endurance. Volunteer organizations have been called in; replaced by regulars, who now occupy salient positions. Nebraska, Pennsylvania and Utah are now taking transports, and Sixth infantry sent to Negros to relieve California.

"These troops in good physicial condition; sickness among troops has increased lately, due mostly to arduous service and climatic influences. Nothing alarming. Of the 12 per cent of the command reported sick, nearly 6 in general hospital, of whom 3 per cent have typhoid and 17 malarial fevers; 25 per cent have intestinal trouble; remaining 55 per cent have various ailments, 14 of which due to wound injuries.

"Many officers and men who served in Cuba break under recurrence of Cuban fever, and regular regiments lately received are inadequately officered.

OTIS."

One of the principal incidents of the month that properly forms a part of the history of the Spanish-American war, and the Filipino rebellion which was a result thereof, was the renewal of diplomatic relations with Spain. The new Spanish minister, the Duke d'Arcos, was formally presented to the President at 11 o'clock, June 3. The speeches of the President and the minister were significant. The Duke d'Arcos said:

"Mr. President: I have the honor to place in your excellency's hands the royal letter by which her majesty, the queen regent of Spain, in the name of her august son, King Don Alfonso XIII., accredits me near this government in the capacity of envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary.

"I have come to renew the relations of friendship which have existed from of old between Spain and the United States, and which were interrupted by the war of last year. The treaty of peace which Spain has signified put an end to that war, and now, looking only to the future, Spain desires that her relations with this republic may be as friendly as they were in times past, and from the days in which this country was struggling to gain its independence. It is my task to contribute to the renewal of these relations, to strengthen them, and to draw them closer, and, in the discharge of it, I hope to be aided by the kindness and co-operation of your excellency and of your government."

The President responded as follows:

"Mr. Minister: I receive with the greatest gratification the letter by which her majesty, the queen regent of Spain, in the name of her august son, King Alfonso XIII., has accredited you near this government as envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary.

"You will find, Mr. Minister, a cordial welcome in this country, not only from those whose friendship you acquired during your former residence, but from all our people, who rejoice as I do at the renewal of the ancient bonds of amity which, with a brief interruption, have united our nations for more than 100 years. That these friendly relations may be confirmed and strengthened, to the advantage of both peoples, is my earnest wish, and I can assure you that every member of this government will heartily co-operate with you to that desirable end."

CHAPTER XLVII.

RAINY SEASON DELAYS FIGHTING.

CELEBRATION OF THE FOURTH OF JULY BY FILIPINOS—STORY OF YOUNG'S SCOUTS, THE MOST THRILLING INCIDENT OF THE WAR.

JULY was an inactive month in the Filipino Campaign, both on account of the heat and the setting in of the rainy season. The American troops suffered greatly from the climate, and as the terms of enlistment would expire in many regiments, the administration began considering the recall of the volunteers, who had sustained the brunt of the fighting, supplying their places as far as possible with regulars, and organizing special volunteer regiments.

Professor Schurman of President McKinley's peace commission returned to Manila from a three weeks' tour of the islands.

The United States gunboat Bennington took Mr. Schurman to Mindanao and the islands of the Sulu and Visayan groups. He traveled through the Island of Negros with Colonel Smith and a party of natives. In several of the principal towns he was tendered banquets and he had an hour's conference with the young Sultan of Sulu, who received him in the royal audience chamber, surrounded by a bodyguard of fierce-looking Moros.

Mr. Schurman told the Sultan that the United States had acquired the sovereignty of the Philippines from Spain, but had no wish to subjugate the population or to interfere with their customs of religion. On the contrary, the great desire of the American government was to help the people of the islands to develop their country.

The Sultan replied that he earnestly desired peace and was anxious to continue the existing treaties.

On the return voyage the president of the commission visited the

town of Borneo, capital of British North Borneo, where he was cordially received by the British officials, who afforded him every facility in his study of the local government and the customs of the people. The population he found much like that of the southern Philippine islands.

General Lawton and Professor Worcester of the commission visited the principal towns in the province of Cavite, out of which the natives were recently driven. Their chief purpose was to direct the election of the presidents of Imus, Bacoor, Paranaque and Las Pinas. Under the municipal system thus inaugurated the presidents or the mayors of the towns were empowered to appoint minor officials and to levy taxes, to be expended in public improvements.

Public schools opened on July 3 with American, Spanish and Filipino teachers. Prescribed holidays include the twenty church days observed in Manila, Washington's birthday and the Fourth of July.

Among the teachers selected was the widow of the Filipino patriot, Dr. Rizal, who prepared the statutes of the Philippine League, and who, when about to board a steamer at Barcelona in the autumn of 1896, was arrested by the Spanish authorities and sent to Manila, where he was tried by court martial on a charge of having organized the uprising in the Philippines, sentenced to death and shot on December 29 of that year. After her husband's execution Mrs. Rizal, who is the stepdaughter of a retired Hongkong gentleman, went to Imus and was chosen captain of a company of insurgents. Fourth of July was celebrated in Manila in genuine American fashion, with fireworks, music and speeches. Several hundred boys and girls, Filipinos, Spaniards and Chinese, from the public schools, dressed in their best clothes, each carrying an American flag, sang "America" in a curious mixture of dialects. Colonel Denby presided at the celebration at the Soldiers' Club, where O. F. Williams, United States Consul General, and others delivered addresses.

The anniversary of the declaration of Filipino independence was likewise celebrated at Tarlac by Aguinaldo and his followers. The following speech made by Aguinaldo on that occasion is taken from "La Independencia:"

"Filipinao—Beloved daughter of the ardent sun of the tropics, commended by Providence to the care of noble Spain, be not ungrateful to her salute who warmed you with the breath of her own culture and civilization. It is true she sought to crush thy aspiration for inde-

pendence, as a loving mother opposes separation forever from the daughter of her bosom. This but proves the excess of love and affection Spain feels for thee. Filipina! Delicate flower of the East, scarcely eight months weaned from the breast of thy mother, thou hast dared to brave a great and powerful nation such as is the United States, after barely organizing and disciplining thy little army. Yet we reply, we will be slaves to none, nor allow ourselves to be deceived by soft words.

"Let us continue to defend our fatherland until independence is secured, for this is justice. We shall see at last that the great American nation will acknowledge the right which is on our side. That doctrine of the great Monroe, that America is for Americans, is not forgotten, just as we affirm that the Philippines are for the Filipinos.

"Some States of the American Union have arisen in our favor. Especially is the Democratic party convinced that both victors and vanquished will lose precious lives. Thus many of the people and many statesmen censure President McKinley as inhuman for having ordered his military representatives at Manila to seek means to bring about hostilities with the Filipinos. These facts prove that they wished to try us to see if we are able to live up to the second color of our banner, which signifies courage, heroism and martyrdom. Therefore we should not resent this struggle with the Americans.

"In spite of their expressed desire to dominate all the Philippines, well convinced are they that we fight with justice and right on our side, and that autonomy is all a show of deceit, only serving to save certain accumulated wealth. We have never concealed our aspirations, that we aspire but to independence, that we will struggle on to obtain it, perhaps from those who are now our enemies and to-morrow will be our allies, as they were for the overthrow of Spain.

"We might well accept this autonomy America offers, but what can we do with it if our ambition is independence, and if we are to accept it only to later overthrow by force of arms the sovereignty of America? As I believe it is the intention of the autonomists to make use of treachery and deceit, we cannot accept such a procedure. We do not wish to be traitor afterward. We wish to show our character of frankness and sincerity and nothing more.

"Let us avoid the example of those natives who, having at one time been colonists, accepted autonomy to enable them to make their work surer, once everything was prepared. History has given us an example

of this in recent events. Let us persist in our idea, which is only the legitimate and noble aspirations of a people which is desirous at all costs to preserve its national honor spotless and as pure as a crystal.

"Thus, then, there will not be a single Filipino autonomist. Those who are so are, in the eyes of the people, but time servers, fearful of losing their riches, threatened by risks of war. Filipinos, let us be constant! Let us strengthen the bonds of our union!"

On July 11 three troops of the Fourth Cavalry, under Captain McGraw, aided by the gunboat Napidan, commanded by Lieutenant Larsen, had an engagement at Mantilupa, on the south shore of the lake. They found 500 insurgents there, intrenched near the shore. The Napidan shelled the rebels, and the troops, numbering 135, landed and drove them by a sharp running fire to the hills, where they were too strongly intrenched for the small force to attack them. Two of the cavalrymen were wounded, and the bodies of ten insurgents were found. It is supposed that the enemy lost thirty-five.

The American system of legal practice before the courts was substituted for the Spanish system on July 19.

Captain B. A. Byrne, of the Sixth Infantry, with seventy men, had a lively skirmish on the Island of Negros during the latter part of the month with a band of native robbers numbering 450. He killed 115 of them and wounded many others; his loss was one man killed and one wounded.

It was at Escalante, on the Island of Negros, that Captain Tilley, of the Signal Corps, was ambushed and murdered by the natives on May 27 last. It is supposed that the band of robbers who were so severely punished by Captain Byrne's command were a part of the same marauders.

The one important battle of the month was fought on July 26. Previous to this the rains had been unprecedented, and miles of country were flooded to a depth of three and four feet. The cessation of the heavy storms presented an opportunity to renew hostilities, and an expedition composed of troops from San Pedro Macati, Pasig and Morong, under Brigadier-General R. H. Hall, attacked and captured Calamba, an important trading town on the south shore of Laguna de Bay, after two hours of sharp fighting, during which four soldiers were killed and twelve wounded.

Major-General Henry W. Lawton, Professor Dean C. Worcester of

the American Philippines Commission, Mrs. General Lawton and General Lawton's son accompanied the expedition on board a launch, and sat coolly in an unprotected boat close to the shore during the fighting, the bullets splashing about them.

The trenches commanding the harbor were under water, but the swampiness of the land made the work harder.

The troops boarded cascoes Tuesday night, July 25. The force comprised 400 of the Washington Volunteers, 450 of the Twenty-first Infantry, 150 of the Fourth Cavalry, and two guns of the First Artillery. These and the gunboats Rapidan and Costo assembled opposite Calamba. Crowds of people in carts and on foot were seen rushing to the hills.

Natives escaping from Calamba in canoes said 100 insurgents held the town. A force under Captain McGrath of the Twenty-first Infantry and Captain Eltonherd landed east of the town, but found a river intervening. Captain McGrath and Lieutenant Batson swam the river under a fire from twenty Mauser rifles. Having crossed the stream, the officers procured a cascoe to ferry the troops over. The insurgents retreated through the town, shooting from houses and bushes as they fled to the hills.

The members of the Washington regiment waded from cascoes through swamps, often shoulder deep, while a group of Filipinos concealed in haystacks were shooting at them, until the Rapidan focused her six-pounders and Gatling guns on the stacks for a few minutes. Most of the work was done before the Washington Volunteers could reach the town.

The Filipinos left three dead. Of the casualties on the American side, two of the killed and three of the wounded were members of the Fourth Cavalry, and two killed and eight wounded belonged to the Twenty-first Infantry.

There was much shooting by amigos, who emerged from the bushes with white flags.

After the fight a dozen men holding up their hands and shouting "Castillanos" met the American cavalry. Even Spanish soldiers embraced the Americans hysterically.

There were fifty Spanish prisoners at Calamba, of whom some were civil officials and some were soldiers. They had been given the choice of joining the Filipino army or becoming servants to Filipinos, and chose the army, intending to surrender at the first opportunity. Most of the

civilians reached the American lines during the fighting, but the insurgents took others away with them in their retreat.

General Hill brought the Spaniards whom the expedition had released from captivity to Manila.

Lieutenant Larson, commanding the Rapidan, found a long-missing Spanish gunboat, which had been covered with bushes and fish nets so as not to resemble a vessel.

The Filipinos met re-enforcements, and, thinking that the Americans had evacuated the town, descended from the hills the following day, intending to reoccupy Calamba. General Hall easily drove them back.

The Filipinos were not the only persons General Otis, the commander of the forces, had to fight during the rainy seasons. The newspaper correspondents at Manila united in a round robin denouncing him for the too rigid censorship of their dispatches. The affair attracted considerable attention in the United States, and from some quarters there was a demand for his recall, but the President decided to retain him in command and expressed himself satisfied with the campaign that General Otis had made.

As much of the fighting in the Philippines was from behind intrenchments, the following letter from a private soldier has a general interest:

"The insurgents' trenches are of all descriptions and depths—no limit to the depth. First they dig a ditch about five feet wide and three feet deep and throw the dirt from it up in front to form a high protection. Sometimes this bank of loose dirt is prevented from falling back into the ditch by means of a tightly-woven bamboo fence. Sometimes another fence or netting is used on the front side to make the dirt stick up higher. The dirt is shoveled in between the two, leveled off on top and patted down good and level, for shooting over. They are generally built in a horseshoe shape, with deep 'getaways' at the ends, through which they can run when the enemy gets too much for them. This 'getaway' is something that is never left off.

"At the Bagbag River and Calumpit they had deep ditches dug, with about eight feet of dirt in front and roofed over with railroad rails, leaving nothing but small notches in the top of the bank to shoot through. On the north side of the track at Calumpit they had a double line. The back one consisted of a very high bank provided with port holes, through which we had to shoot if we expected to hit any one. The front and lower line consisted of a deep ditch, and the dirt from it thrown into

triangular pens, built up with old railroad ties. This gave good protection to men in the ditch, and also furnished a wide range of vision."

One of the most thrilling stories of the war in the Philippines is told of the scouts who served under General Lawton in the earlier stages of the campaign. It was related to Major Grant of the Utah Artillery by Major-General Lawton during the campaign against the Filipinos near Manila. It tells of the heroic achievements of Young's scouts. Their leader was a civilian who had seen frontier service against the American Indians.

Young had gone to Manila out of pure love of adventure, "just to help the boys out," as he expressed it. General Lawton told the most thrilling story of the war to Major Grant as they sat in the General's headquarters at the front near Condaba. General Lawton referred to the campaign then in progress to the north and east of Manila and said:

"The work of my men during the campaign has been simply wonderful, and much of its success has been due to the gallant work of the scouts.

"Soon after leaving Malolos," he continued, "I entered the enemy's country and was greatly annoyed by their sharpshooters. One morning I had ordered a halt to make a reconnoissance. Sitting on a log, some distance to the front of where my staff and I were, I saw a man in civilian dress coolly watching operations. I asked who he was, and one of my staff officers replied that he did not know, but that he had seen him on the firing line many times, and although he had been frequently ordered to the rear he had disobeyed the order.

"The lieutenant said: 'He has been continuously in front of our lines under fire, but the men can't keep him away.'

"Now, if there's anything that angers me it's to see a brave man needlessly expose himself, so I ordered the stranger sent to me. He approached, and I was much taken with his appearance. I said: 'Who are you, and what are you doing out there?'

" 'I am an American citizen, my name is Young. I have been a scout in the Indian campaigns of Montana and the Dakotas, and I thought I would come out here to try and help out the boys a little.' I recalled his name as one of the men who had done gallant service against the redskins. I asked him if he could pick competent men like himself from the North Dakota regiment. He said he could, and I at once offered

him the post of chief of scouts at a salary of $150 a month. He accepted and next day was ready for business.

"During the campaign these men did gallant service. They would leave camp with only rifles, canteens and ammunition and be gone sometimes four days. On the way to San Ysidro the enemy had crossed the river on our approach and fired the bridge. Then Young's scouts showed their metal. The brave fellows waded into the water on either side of the bridge, and, using their campaign hats to dip up water, they put out the fire on the bridge, while Young and a man named Harrington, his lieutenant, armed only with big army revolvers, stood in plain sight on the bridge, covering their men. When a Filipino raised his head above the trenches a revolver bullet ended his career.

"The brave officers held the bridge amid a storm of bullets until finally Young fell, shot through the knee. Harrington ran to his wounded leader and with a pistol in each hand stood over the fallen man shooting at the Filipinos who tried to pick him off. He held his position till soldiers came and carried Young to the rear and later sent him to a Manila hospital. Our men crossed the bridge and drove out the rebs.

"A few days later Harrington took his men to the front, and after a hard march stopped for supper at 5 o'clock. He sat down, leaning against a bank of earth to await the mess call. He did not respond when the call came, so his men went to look for him. They found him leaning back, his head resting on his breast, with his rifle by his side, a corpse. He had fallen asleep and a stray Mauser bullet had passed through his neck, killing him. Next morning I sent this personal message to Young in Manila:

" 'Harrington died at 5 o'clock last night.'

"Four hours later I received from the chief surgeon in the hospital this dispatch:

" 'Young died at 5 o'clock last night.'

"So the two brave men had closed their last campaign at almost the same moment. Too high praise cannot be given these heroes and their little band of fearless scouts."

CHAPTER XLVIII.

MANY BATTLES AND MUCH DIPLOMACY.

ONE OF THE MOST EVENTFUL MONTHS IN THE CAMPAIGN—CALL FOR NEW VOLUNTEER REGIMENTS—TREATY MADE WITH THE SULTAN OF SULU—DESCRIPTION OF THAT POTENTATE AND HIS COUNTRY BY A CORRESPONDENT WHO VISITED HIS CAPITAL.

UGUST, 1899, was an eventful month in the Philippines. Notwithstanding the heat and rain a number of memorable engagements were fought and some diplomatic incidents took place.

The Filipinos had massed an army of 6,000 men around San Fernando, and it had been their intention to massacre the entire American garrison of that place. News of this plan reached MacArthur's main column, and preparations were made to rout the rebels.

On account of the heavy rains the advance which had been planned for the first week in the month had to be postponed until August 9, when the weather became favorable for the movement. The Filipino army was beaten and driven back five miles in the direction of Angeles.

The Americans covered five miles the first five hours and at 2 o'clock had advanced six miles along the railway, stretching on each side of it for two miles and resting at night three miles from Angeles, which was made the northern base of operations instead of San Fernando, where a garrison of 600 men had been left.

The troops about Angeles waited for the artillery, which had the greatest difficulty in moving, owing to the wet grounds.

The attack opened at 5 o'clock in the morning, a battery of the First Artillery shelled Bacolor on the left. Simultaneously Bell's Thirty-sixth Infantry struck Bacolor from the rear and drove the rebels out.

Armored cars, each with a six-pounder and two Gatling revolving

cannon on board, were then mounted on the railroad track in the center of our lines. Soon afterwards these guns did sharp execution.

Battery M of the Third Artillery and a hundred men of the Iowa regiment made a feint toward Maxico, while the main body of troops, consisting of the Iowa regiment, the Seventeenth Regiment and a battalion of the Twenty-second, under General Wheaton, on the right, and the Ninth Regiment, Twelfth Regiment and Bell's regiment, under General Liscum, on the left, advanced steadily, pouring their fire into the rebels and receiving heavy fire in return.

The rebels were well protected by trenches and seemed not to lack ammunition.

But they were unable to withstand for any length of time the hail of shots our artillery and infantry poured in on them, and retreated, leaving their dead and wounded on the field. A dozen prisoners were captured by our troops. The weather was extremely hot and our troops suffered greatly. But there was no faltering. The firing, except at isolated points, had ceased by 10 o'clock.

The Filipinos were surprised, expecting the American forces to move against Tico. They followed their usual tactics of holding their trenches until they became too warm, and then retreating in disorder.

The country our troops passed over is covered with rice fields and bamboo thickets, the hardest possible ground for marching. The mud in places was knee deep.

Angeles is one of the richest towns north of Manila, and was considered a better base of operations than San Fernando.

The forces at San Fernando consisted of the Iowa Regiment, the Seventeenth Regiment, the Ninth Regiment, the Twelfth Regiment, Pell's new Thirty-sixth Regiment, a battalion of the Sixteenth Regiment, Troop E of the Fourth Cavalry and fifteen guns.

The Americans' position had long been unpleasant. The rebels almost surrounded the town, and fired nearly nightly into it, the Americans not replying except on extreme provocation. It was necessary to keep 500 to 600 men on outpost duty constantly.

Captain Deems, with a provost guard, at Manila, captured a noted Filipino fakir with several aliases, who by means of ventriloquism had persuaded the natives that he had supernatural powers. He raised much money, ostensibly for the insurrection, which he kept for himself. Our soldiers surrounded his house and corralled thirty Filipinos. Many

others escaped. Immanuel, as the fakir is generally known, has been predicting the fall of Manila. His "prophecies" created excitement among the natives who believed him.

General Otis sent the following dispatch concerning the engagement near San Fernando:

"MacArthur's movement served to clear country rear and left and right of insurgents. He advanced north to Calulet, six miles from San Fernando. His casualties were five killed, twenty-nine wounded. Officers wounded are Major Braden and Captain Abernethy, Thirty-sixth Volunteers, leg and arm, moderate, and Lieutenant Williams, Fifty-first Iowa, thigh, moderate. These troops operated to left and rear toward Santa Rita.

"MacArthur's advance under Wheaton and Liscum consists of Ninth, Twelfth, Seventeenth, part of Twenty-second Regiments and portion of Fifty-first Iowa. Movement very difficult on account of mud and surface water.

"MacArthur reports insurgents' loss 100 killed, some 300 wounded. They were rapidly driven northward, and soon abandoned Porac line, where they blew up powder works."

Advices from Calulet, under date of August 11, reported that General MacArthur took the Ninth Regiment, a battalion of the Twenty-second and a detachment of the First Artillery from Calulet to Santa Rita, near Bacolor. The entrance of the troops into the town was not opposed, the insurgents fleeing as the Americans approached. The troops had a hard march of ten miles, in some places being obliged to wade waist deep in water. Many were exhausted.

Lieutenant Hazard, of General Wheaton's staff, with five scouts from the Iowa Regiment, marched up the railroad into Angeles. A small force of rebels attacked the scouts outside the town, and Lieutenant Hazard sent for re-enforcements. General Wheaton's orders, however, were that the Americans should not occupy Angeles; and, a force of 600 or 700 rebels appearing, Lieutenant Hazard retired.

MacArthur's troops remained at Calulet the night of August 10. The rebels had evidently fled far beyond rifle range, for the American outposts were not disturbed and not a shot was fired during the night.

At daybreak next morning a reconnoitering party, consisting of a battalion of the Seventeenth Infantry, with one field piece, started up the railroad track toward Angeles, four miles north. The party approached

within 1,200 yards of the town and opened fire with the field gun. The Americans were received with a badly directed rifle fire, which the battalion of the Seventeenth returned with a few volleys.

The strength of the insurgents at Angeles not being known, the situation was reported to General MacArthur, who did not desire to send re-enforcements and directed the reconnoitering party to return unless the rebels abandoned the town. Soon after the receipt of these orders it became evident that the rebels had set fire to the town and fled, leaving the place to be occupied by the Americans.

The insurgents lost heavily in the fighting around Calulet. It is believed that a hundred were killed and three or four hundred wounded. The Iowa regiment killed thirty in one place, and one company of the Seventeenth suddenly encountered a party of rebels in a trench and killed twelve.

The American loss was five killed and thirty-one wounded, including three officers.

The attack was a complete surprise to the insurgents, who had no idea that a movement was intended until the armored car opened a deadly fire with two Gatlings, a revolving cannon and a six-pounder. The heavy artillery opened on both flanks a moment later. A majority of the Filipinos were asleep when the attack was made. Men with large bells were heard running among the shacks, arousing the soldiers.

The Americans maintained almost a perfect line four miles long, through canebrakes, where they could see nothing ahead.

The Filipinos tried to ambush the Americans several times, the country in the neighborhood being well adapted to these tactics; but the troops stopped for nothing, forcing their way through or over obstacles and firing whenever they could locate the fleeing enemy.

A reconnoissance on August 12 by troops of General Samuel B. M. Young's brigade, with the object of discovering the whereabouts of the enemy near San Mateo, northeast of the San Juan reservoir, about ten miles from Manila, resulted in the occupation of San Mateo. The American loss was three killed and thirteen wounded, including a lieutenant of the Twenty-first Infantry.

The Americans approached San Mateo in three columns. Major Cronin with a detachment of the Twenty-fifth Infantry advanced from Novaliches, five miles west of San Mateo. Captain Rivers, with 100 men of the Fourth Cavalry, and Captain Parker, formerly lieutenant colonel

of the Twelfth New York Volunteer Regiment, with 280 men of the Twenty-first and Twenty-fourth Infantry and the Fourth Cavalry, approached in two columns from the south.

Major Cronin experienced many difficulties arising from the condition of the country, and failed to effect a junction with Captain Rivers west of San Mateo, as had been planned.

Captain Rivers, advancing, took an outpost of the enemy two miles southwest of San Mateo. He encountered strong resistance among the hills, the enemy firing from excellent positions. Having failed to connect with Major Cronin and seeing that the town was already occupied by the Americans, Captain Rivers withdrew, covering his withdrawal by a heavy volley. He lost a sergeant killed.

Captain Parker, on advancing, found the enemy strongly intrenched on the far side of some rice fields about a mile wide, and covered with deep mud. Pushing forward rapidly he routed the Filipinos after forty minutes' fighting, and then continued the march upon San Mateo, which he entered without serious resistance about 1:30 in the afternoon.

Major Cronin entered the town about 4:30. Our men were exhausted by the heavy marching. Twenty-three of the enemy are known to have been killed.

This was the first action in which Colonel Burt's colored troops participated. They behaved well, their leaders having difficulty in holding them back.

General Young accompanied Captain Parker's column and was under fire throughout the engagement. It is estimated that the enemy numbered between 300 and 400 men.

The insurgents became aggressive in the neighborhood of the railroads. On the day of General Young's reconnoissance they unsuccessfully attacked San Luis, on the Rio Grande, near Calumpit, which was garrisoned by two companies of the Twenty-second Infantry. The Americans had one man, a sergeant, killed and two privates wounded.

On the morning of August 13 a similar affair took place at Gringua, four miles west of Malolos, where another small garrison was stationed as a safeguard against a possible attack upon the railway. A special train took re-enforcements to Malolos and Guiguinto, just north of Bulacan.

While the Seventeenth Infantry during the battle on August 7 was approaching Calulet along the road the troops saw a group of fifty Fili-

pinos outside the town under a flag of truce. Some, who were in white clothing, held up their hands to signify that they were unarmed. Captain Hart, with a detachment, advanced cautiously to a point within 200 yards of them, when the Filipinos picked up their guns and fired a volley. The Americans dropped into the bushes unhurt on the first movement and returned the fire. At this the Filipinos ran off.

Word was received from Lieut. J. C. Gilmore, of the United States gunboat Yorktown, who with fourteen members of the crew of the gunboat was captured by the insurgents in April near Baler, on the east coast of Luzon. The message, which came through Spanish prisoners, was to the effect that the officer and his men were at Vigan, in the province of South Ilocas, on the west coast of Luzon. All but two were well. Lieutenant Gilmore was allowed a house and a servant and was fairly treated.

From another account it appears that when the Americans reached San Isidro, where the Yorktown members and some soldiers and civilians had been imprisoned, they found the names of the prisoners scratched on the walls of the jail. Some letters from the men were found secreted under stones, and a Spaniard who had been intrusted with several presented them to General Lawton. The letters told of the hardships the men were compelled to suffer and begged that aid be sent them.

The men complained that they had been starved, beaten and bound, and, moreover, were in rags. One of the letters, signed by Albert Lowenshon, said that the Spaniards had been treated very badly, worse than the Americans, and that hundreds were dying of dysentery and other diseases, and that the government took no notice of sickness prevailing.

In his letter, Lowenshon, who was formerly of the steamship Zealandia, gave the list of prisoners held by the Filipinos as follows:

Prisoners from the Yorktown—J. C. Gilmore, W. Wilson, P. Vandovil, W. Ellsworth, S. Edwards, S. Brisoloz, A. Pearson and F. Anderson, captured at Baler April 11; A. D. Price, E. Honneman, Nevada Cavalry, captured January 30; A. Bishop, Third Artillery, April 12; H. H. Huber, Hospital Corps, and J. O'Brien, civilian, January 27.

A force of United States troops from Quingua, four miles northeast of Malolos, and from Baliuag, near Bustos, about six miles northeast of Quingua, encountered a body of insurgents, estimated at about 500, half way between Bustos and Quingua on August 14. In the engagement that

ensued, the Filipinos were severely punished and scattered. The Americans lost one man killed.

The insurgent force was under command of General Pio del Pilar and had in view the tearing up of the railway at Bocave and Bigaa, about three miles northeast of Bulacan.

General Wheaton, with the troops at Calulet, made a reconnoissance on Angeles, about four miles to the northwest, where he found 500 of the enemy. He silenced their fire and then returned to Calulet.

The insurgents began concentrating again around Angeles, and Colonel Smith, with ten companies of the Twelfth regiment and two guns of Battery E of the First Artillery, under Lieutenant Kemley, the next day attacked 2,500 strongly intrenched insurgents at the southern approach to Angeles and drove them back after a sharp fight, the American troops losing two men killed and twelve wounded. The insurgent loss was estimated at 200 men.

About two hundred insurgents appeared the same day in front of Dolores, a short distance north of Porac, but they were driven off by one company of the Twelfth Regiment, under command of Captain Anglum. One American was wounded.

Major Kirkman, on entering Santa Maria and Depanay with a reconnoitering party, learned that after the fight with General Pio del Pilar's men near Bustos about 330 insurgents retreated northward, carrying many wounded, including five officers.

The following morning the Twelfth Infantry left Calulet at sunrise and advanced up the railway. Captain Evans' battalion deployed to the right of the track and Captain Wood's to the left. Two companies remained on the track with the artillery.

The insurgents were found well intrenched in front of the town, the trenches having been dug within a few days and since the occupation of Calulet.

At a distance of 1,500 yards the Filipinos opened fire. Their force was estimated by Colonel Smith at 1,500, although the residents afterward said it exceeded those figures by a thousand. The enemy sent heavy volleys against the whole American line. Most of their shooting, as usual, was high, but they concentrated their heaviest fire down the track upon the artillery.

Colonel Smith kept the whole line moving rapidly, with frequent rushes. The insurgents attempted to flank Captain Evans, and therefore

two companies were sent to the right and drove them back. Unable to stand our continuous volleys, the Filipinos abandoned the trenches and retreated through the town northward.

The intense heat caused much suffering among the Americans. A reporter of the Manila Times, who was accompanying Colonel Smith, was shot in the head and killed. One American officer received a slight wound in the face. Lieutenant Howland, of General Wheaton's staff, who knew the country thoroughly, as the result of reconnoissances, and who assisted in directing the movement, received a volley while riding across the field close to the trenches, but he escaped unharmed.

During the hot and rainy season in the Philippines it had become evident to the war department that if the insurrection were to be suppressed forthwith that more troops would be needed. Accordingly Secretary of War Elihu Root, who had succeeded Secretary Alger, issued an order on August 17 calling for the enlistment of ten more regiments of volunteers, to which there was a prompt response, and the regiments were quickly recruited.

On the day that Secretary Root took this effective step to crush the Filipino rebels, 800 of the latter attacked the town of Angeles, but were driven off by the Twelfth Regiment.

August 21 was an eventful day in Manila. General Joseph Wheeler (Fighting Joe), who had distinguished himself in Cuba, particularly at El Caney, had been assigned to duty in the Philippines, and on the date mentioned he and his heroic daughter arrived in Manila on the transport Tartar, which also carried $1,300,000 in coin for the American troops. Gen. Wheeler was given command of "Fighting Fred" Funston's brigade.

The day following General Wheeler's arrival the mayor of San Pedro Macati, who was elected by the people under the direction of Professor Dean Worcester, of the United States advisory commission for the Philippines, was brought to Manila and lodged in jail. The United States officers at San Pedro Macati found that he was using his office as a recruiting station for the Philippine army. Four disguised insurgent officers were helping him.

The mayor of Baliuag was also arrested and confined in the same prison. The Americans caught him passing between the lines of the two armies with incriminating documents, which the authorities secured.

Two days later General Otis announced in a dispatch to the war department that Brigadier General John C. Bates had returned to Manila

after having negotiated a treaty with the Sultan of the Sulu archipelago.

The full text of the treaty is as follows:

1. The sovereignty of the United States over the entire Sulu archipelago is acknowledged.

2. The American flag is adopted as the flag of the sultan.

3. The United States government may occupy and control such points in the archipelago as the public interests demand, except territory immediately surrounding the sultan's grounds, unless such occupation shall be a military necessity due to the exigencies of war with a foreign power.

4. In case due compensation be made any person shall be permitted to purchase land in the archipelago by obtaining the consent of the sultan. Such purchase may be registered at the proper American offices established for that purpose.

5. The rights and dignities of the sultan and datos (chiefs) are to be fully respected.

6. The Moros are not to be interfered with on account of their religion. All religious customs are to be respected, and no one is to be persecuted on account of his religion.

7. All trade in domestic products of the archipelago when carried on by the sultan or the Moro people under the flag of the United States, is to be free, unlimited and undutiable.

8. The sultan is allowed to communicate direct with the governor-general of the Philippines in making complaint against the commanding officers representing American authority at Jolo, the principal town, or against any naval commander.

9. The introduction of firearms into the archipelago is forbidden except on permission of the governor-general.

10. The sultan agrees to suppress piracy.

11. The sultan will try all cases arising of Moros against Moros, the convicted men being delivered to the Americans for punishment.

12. Any slave in the archipelago is given the right to purchase his freedom by paying his owner the sum of $20.

13. Whenever trouble arises between Americans and the sultan the former must fully investigate the matter before resorting to harsh measures.

14. For the present any American or foreigner wishing to travel in

the interior of any of the islands must obtain an escort of Moros for his protection.

15. The United States will protect the sultan in the event of any foreign nation attempting any imposition on him.

16. The United States must not sell the archipelago to any foreign nation without the consent of the sultan.

17. For governing his subjects and preserving peace the sultan is to receive a monthly salary of $250 (Mexican). The three chief datos will receive $75 (Mexican) monthly. Three other datos will receive $60 (Mexican) monthly. The sultan's secretary will receive a monthly salary of $50 (Mexican). Raja Mura will receive $40 (Mexican) and Serif Saguin $15 (Mexican) monthly.

The treaty was signed at the sultan's capital, Maibun, on August 20. Besides receiving the signature of the sultan it was signed for the Moros by Raja Mura and Datos Attik, Kalbi and Joakanin, the most powerful of the chiefs. General Bates signed for the Americans.

The sultan requested permission to build residences for himself in the towns of Jolo and Saissi, which permission was granted.

During the five weeks that the negotiations with the sultan and the datos were under way General Bates visited the most important ports of the archipelago and established friendly relations with the chiefs. When he visited the sultan at his capital, Maibun, on the cruiser Charleston, the sultan and his chiefs were invited on board the warship. They accepted the invitation and examined the vessel thoroughly, showing great interest in the electrical appliances and in the armament. However, the sultan was particularly attracted by a gramophone, which astonished him very much and he requested it as a present for his sultana.

When General Bates was in Maibun August 20 the sultan received him with great ceremony. The result of the agreement, which was then perfected, was to insure the peaceable occupation by Americans of the most warlike districts of our eastern possessions.

General Bates visited among other points in the archipelago the town of Isabella, on the Island of Basilan, and the islands of Siassi and Bongow. He recommended the establishment of garrisons at these points. Zamboango, at the extreme end of the island of Mindanao, was still in possession of a force of insurgents sent thither by Aguinaldo.

For the following description of the sultan of Sulu and his country

the writer is indebted to John T. McCutcheon, the Manila correspondent and artist for the Chicago Daily Record:

His highness, Hadji Mohammed Jamalol Kiram, sultan of Sulu, sometimes called "the keeper of the key to heaven" by the faithful, exhibited a singular reluctance to come over and treat with General Bates, and it seemed for a few days that a little show of force might be necessary to bring him to terms. Invitations had been sent him asking him to come to the town of Jolo, but he invariably responded that ill health prevented him accepting them. The gunboat Manila steamed over to Maibun, the sultan's capital, but his highness sent out word that he was ill and couldn't come aboard. Rumors were thick around Patikola and Mobu and Bus-Bus that Dato Joakanain, the sultan's most powerful enemy, was going to lead a strong following across the island on August 5 for the purpose of attacking the capital.

Since the sultan was the center of so much political gossip, we decided to go over to his capital and interview him on any subject that he would be willing to talk about.

The first requisite was an interpreter. The sultan does not speak English or Spanish, and he has no one in his capital who does. There are only two men in the island of Sulu who speak English and the Moro dialect, and these men are the German trader, Schuck, and an old Nubian renegade who has picked up a smattering of English in the British colonies where he has lived.

Schuck was by far the more preferable, for he is a gentleman of much intelligence, a good companion, a master of both English and Moro, and in addition has a thorough knowledge of the island. But it was impossible for him to go with us. He was to go to Isabella with General Bates on board the Charleston, and would not be back for three days. We then sought out the Nubian.

It was a ride of wonderful interest.

Maibun lies on the southern coast of the island of Sulu, about twelve miles from Jolo, which is on the northern coast. There are no roads anywhere in the island, for there are no vehicles. Bridle paths lead back from the coast, through the tall mountain grass on the sloping hills, through dense tropical jungles, through mountain streams, up over the mountain range and then down the wild stretch of country to the opposite coast.

In many places the horses are quite buried in the tall grass and only

the bobbing heads and shoulders of the riders can be seen. Soon after we started a shot was heard ahead of us. It might have made this story more interesting if the shot had been fired at us, but even the wildest flight of imagination could not convince us that it was. Some native was probably out shooting birds.

Occasionally a Moro would rise with startling suddenness from the grass at the side of the bridle path, gaze at us with curiosity and then disappear as mysteriously as he had appeared.

The first two miles lead through a rather open country, but after the trail begins the ascent of the hills and in its course penetrates tropical forests so thick that the sky is quite obscured. Monkeys and parrots chattered and uttered shrill cries of alarm as we passed beneath, and the matted undergrowth hummed with the songs of countless insects. Little ravines ran criss-cross through the forest, and in many places it was almost impassable for the ponies.

This forest land lies at the base of the hills. When the trail emerges from it, the views from the crests are magnificent. Away off to the north lies the Sulu sea, its placid surface dotted with dozens of little islands of brilliant green. To the southward, miles away, is the Celebes sea, with its blue bosom, similarly broken up by the small waving bunches of palm trees that mark the coral islands. The fresh strong breath of the trade-wind whispers through the tall mountain grass and the ponies race eagerly along the crest of the range until the dip on the other side begins, and the breeze is broken.

In many places the island has the serene, clean beauty of a veritable park. The ground is even and uniformly green, while distributed about are gigantic trees of most stately and imposing proportions. Then come stretches through dwarfed, stumpy forests of trees, and then stretches through palm trees. It seemed that every kind of tree that is grown had assembled in Sulu for the purpose of making the ride from Jolo to Maikum the ride of exquisite beauty that it is.

After three hours of hard riding we came to the outskirts of the sultan's capital. Many natives gathered around us, but showed no sign of unfriendliness.

The Nubian paused at the edge of the town and had a long and anxious conversation with a Moro. They frequently looked furtively at us and we assumed that we were under discussion.

Then the march was resumed.

"Take us direct to the palace of the sultan," we said.

After a short ride we passed through a broken gateway in a rough stone wall. Two armed Moros, mounted on little ponies, met us as we entered, but made no sign of stopping us. To our left was a little clearing, and in the middle was a curious building looking like a blockhouse. A row of towering palm trees ran from this building, back along the bank of a small stream, and in the distance we could see the gleaming, galvanized iron roofs of some low structures.

The Nubian halted and had a hurried conversation with a man whom we could not see, but who was evidently in one of the small shacks that clustered on the edge of the clearing.

Then we started again.

"Are we going to the palace?" we asked. The Nubian said "yes," and he lied when he said it, as we subsequently learned.

Along the edge of the stream we went for a short distance, and then rode out on a long causeway built through a marshy stretch of lowland covered with a bushy undergrowth. This causeway was rough with bowlders, and the ponies picked their way gingerly along the smoother portions. At the seaward end of this dike begins the town proper of Maibun.

What a spot of monumental squalor! Clusters of tumble-down nipa shacks, mud everywhere, the rough streets uneven with piles of dirt, the doorways and platforms of the houses thronged with the most unclean and slatternly women and children that I have ever seen. In the center of the town is an open space, and in the center of this open space is a low shed which serves as a market. Hundreds of natives thronged to the edge of the building as we entered the square and tied our horses.

The Nubian went away somewhere and we sat at the edge of the market for half an hour with a solid bank of curious Moros hemming us within a circle scarcely five feet wide. All the men were armed, but they showed no hostility; they exhibited merely a great curiosity.

There was not another white man within twelve miles, and it was certainly not the most pleasant sensation in the world to have armed Moros standing behind you with their knees pressing against your back.

In order to cultivate a friendly spirit I taught a little native boy how to count up to ten in English. Then the sage of the village taught us how to count in Moro. We soon were on very good terms, drank the

milk from some cocoanuts, and wondered why our Nubian friend had vanished.

At last he appeared, and led us over to a rather pretentious house on a side street. This was the house of Rajah Muda, the sultan's brother, and Hadji Butu came out to welcome us. We were taken in and asked to wait until he could ascertain whether his highness would receive us.

We waited over an hour. A lantern-jawed gentleman of some distinction came in and sat down and looked at us during that period. About two dozen natives unceremoniously pushed in, and from corners and from behind doors and from various other positions of vantage, looked at us solemnly. The rear of the room was built up with a wooden grating, and various female members of the household lined up and discreetly studied us. When we would catch their eyes they would disappear in great confusion, but we would soon again feel their dark eyes burning holes in us from some other shelter.

The Dato Attik, a young pale-faced boy, entered and sat down in front of us and looked at us. A native brought in a huge plate of fruit and set it on the table before us. So we sat and ate and smoked and waited to hear from the sultan, while the populace watched every movement. Back in the rear of the house somebody was snapping the breechblock of a rifle, which sound did not add materially to the gayety of the occasion.

At 3 o'clock Hadji Butu returned and said we might go to see the sultan.

Back along the causeway we went, and were ushered into the blockhouse which we had seen on entering the town. Here we waited another half-hour. Some of the sultan's guards came and stood around us. They were Pathans from India. They were dressed in khaki and had apparently been in the British service. They looked at us earnestly but respectfully.

Hadji Butu said the sultan would walk from his palace over behind the trees and receive us in the blockhouse. So we watched the road to see him approach.

At the end of our half-hour Hadji Butu told us that the sultan had arrived. Then we were ushered up a rough stairway to the second floor of the blockhouse.

The center of the room to which we were led was occupied almost

entirely by a separate enclosure, which left only a narrow aisle extending around it.

In this aisle, sitting by the window, was the sultan.

Before him lay a mat and on the window sill beside him were a silver bowl or cuspidor and his silver betelnut box. behind him crouched two or three native boys, and at his other side was a door, slightly ajar, which led into the mysterious inclosure, occupying the central part of the room. An occasional rustle emanated from this door, and I shall always be convinced that the famous sultana sat just within to hear what the Americans might have to say.

The sultan is not an imposing person. His face is pure Malay in type, and the thin, drooping mustache and sparse growth of beard on the tip of his chin give a little character to a countenance which otherwise would be utterly characterless. His face is pitted with smallpox scars, his eyes looked wan and tired and his mind seemed to be wandering. A turban of cashmere cloth was wound about his head, with one end falling below his left shoulder. A white garment, very like an ordinary night-gown, a white sarong and slippers and stockings completed his costume so far as external effect went.

He arose and we advanced and shook hands. Then we sat down and the sultan said a few words to Hadji Butu, who repeated them to the Nubian, who then translated them to us. It was a curious fact that everything had to go via Butu. Perhaps the Nubian did not rank high enough to converse direct with the sultan.

"The sultan says that he is sorry that he kept you waiting. He has been taking a bath."

We assured him that was all right.

Bass then told him, of course, through the Nubian, that we represented great and powerful newspapers in America and that the American people had heard a great deal of the sultan and wished to extend greetings, through us, to his highness.

The Nubian, in translating this, could think of no Moro word meaning "newspapers," so he had to let it go in English, which of course, meant nothing to the sultan.

We then inquired after his health and expressed the hope that he would soon be well enough to visit Jo'lo. The general, we said, would be very glad to see him.

The sultan answered this in a kindly tone.

CHAPTER XLIX.

SEPTEMBER IN THE PHILIPPINES.

LITTLE FIGHTING BUT MUCH PLANNING FOR AUTUMN CAMPAIGN.

WHILE there was little fighting during September on account of the typhoons which raged with unusual violence, it was an active month in other respects. Newly recruited regiments sailed from the United States, and upon their arrival the original volunteer regiments were relieved from duty and returned to their respective states, where they one and all received a tremendous ovation.

The Filipinos took advantage of the climate to annoy and harass the American troops, and at times seemed as if they were engaging in aggressive warfare, but they did not succeed in any of their sallies or attacks.

Captain Butler, with three companies of the Third Infantry, a detachment of cavalry and one gun, while upon a reconnoissance, met a body of rebels on September 6 at San Rafael. The Americans scattered the enemy and captured seven prisoners, five rifles and 300 rounds of ammunition. They also destroyed the rice stored in seven warehouses. The rebels belonged to the command of General Pio del Pilar, who, with his main force, retreated to the north.

It was learned in Manila on September 8 that an extraordinary session of the revolutionary congress took place at Tarlac, August 24. Aguinaldo presided and chose Mabini as president of the supreme court and Gonzaga as attorney-general. They both represent the most conservative and temperate element. Mabini, who recently resigned the foreign secretaryship, is the ablest man connected with the revolution. Gonzaga was president of the last peace commission. The proceedings of the congress disproved the report that Aguinaldo had declared himself dictator. A decree was issued by the Filipinos compelling the registra-

tion of all foreigners in Filipino territory. The Chinese, who were a large fraction of the population, were considered foreigners, including those born in the Philippine islands.

A force of 450 rebels, with one cannon, attacked Santa Rita early on the morning of September 9. Simultaneously Guagua and San Antonio were attacked by bodies of rebels numbering about sixty men. All the attacks were repulsed without loss to the Americans. Colonel Bell and his regiment, while attempting to take the rebels in the rear, met two small patrols and succeeded in capturing a rebel captain, a lieutenant and six privates.

The inhabitants of Santa Barbara, the rebel headquarters in the island of Panay, abandoned the town, fearing a bombardment of the place by the United States battleship Oregon.

The mayor of Imus disappeared, and it was supposed he joined the rebels on the promise of receiving a generalship. He was a colonel in the insurrection of 1887, and was one of the mayors installed by the Americans.

An escaped Spanish planter by the name of Garza supplied some valuable information concerning Lieutenant Gilmore, of the Yorktown, and his fourteen men who were captured at Balor.

Garza described Lieutenant Gilmore and his companions to officers in Manila. He said that that officer and the fourteen men were at Bigau, where they were subsisting off of a meager quantity of rice valued at not more than one peseta per man per day. The allowance was more liberal than that for the Spanish prisoners, everyone of whom was allotted one-half peseta per day. There were fully 2,000 of the latter at Bigau, Garza said, and all prisoners, Spanish and American, showed the effect of the confinement and the poor and insufficient food.

Garza also described the extent of the force at Bigau, where fully 8,000 Filipinos were under arms. Some of the weapons they carried were Mausers, with which the troops on the line were being equipped steadily. The sources of supply evidently amazed Garza, as it had those in authority in Manila. He said that the old weapons were distributed to the troops in the interior, and that the armament of the infantry went on to an alarming extent.

Garza also reported that the Filipinos in some instances were equipped with the uniform of Americans, including the cork helmet. These articles evidently came from the steamer Centennial, which went

on the reef on the northwestern coast of Luzon and was promptly looted.

Rear Admiral Watson made the following report of an engagement in Paragua:

"Davidson, in Paragua, had sharp engagement on the 14th at San Fabian, Lingayen gulf, with about 300 insurgents heavily intrenched at a distance of from 1,100 to 700 yards. The insurgents fled. Their fire was weak and ineffective. On the Paragua there were no casualties. The senior commends Davidson highly."

The Paragua was one of the little gunboats turned over to the army by Admiral Watson, and Davidson, the commander, was a young ensign. The scene of the battle was on the north coast of Luzon, off the port which formed the northern terminus of the railroad.

A party of insurgents ditched a railroad train a mile and a half south of Angeles on September 22 and then opened fire upon the derailed cars from a bamboo thicket close to the track. Two Americans were killed and five others wounded. Lieutenant Lome, and five of his scouts, who were on the train, made a vigorous defense and caused the enemy to flee. Six dead rebels were afterwards found in the thicket from which the rebel fire came. General Wheaton, with six companies, proceeded from Calulet to the relief of the train, but his services were not needed.

Another cable from Admiral Watson on September 22 told of the strict watch he was keeping on filibusterers. It read:

"Panay, Laning commanding, captured steamer Mundaca, illicitly trading. Mariveles, Oman commanding, captured steamer Taaleno, aiding and abetting insurgents. Taaleno will make good gunboat; 100 tons. Will fit out and man her."

"The Panay is commanded by Ensign Laning, who was previously attached to the Monadnock. Lieutenant Joseph W. Oman was transferred to the Mariveles from the Helena."

Still another told of the important capture of a Krupp gun at Subig bay on the 23d:

"Mandora discovered heavy gun mounted opposite Kalaklan Point, Subig bay; exchanged shots with Charleston. Sent Charleston, Monterey, Concord and Zafiro with detachment of marines and sailors from Baltimore to capture and destroy. Attacked insurgent position 23d; after bombardment landing party carried intrenchments, dispossessed enemy, and destroyed sixteen-centimeter Krupp gun. Insurgent fire heavy but poorly aimed. Enemy's loss unknown."

The destroyed piece of ordnance was one of the guns sent to that place by the Spanish before the battle of Manila bay. A short time before the beginning of the war Spain began the fortification of Subig bay with the intention of making it a military and naval stronghold. Admiral Dewey, indeed, thought he might find the Spanish fleet there, instead of at Manila, and as a matter of fact the Spanish admiral had gone to Subig bay on April 27, but finding that the mounting of the guns in the shore batteries had been delayed he returned to Manila.

The insurgents took possession of the Spanish posts in the bay in July of last year, being assisted by the Raleigh and the Concord, which were sent in by Admiral Dewey. The sixteen-centimeter Krupp gun corresponds very nearly with the six-inch gun used in the American navy.

On the 25th it was reported that the insurgents had captured the United States gunboat Urdaneta in the Orani river on the northwest side of Manila bay, where she was patrolling. One officer and nine of her crew were missing.

The United States gunboat Petrel, sent to investigate the matter, returned and reported that the Urdaneta was beached opposite the town of Orani on the Orani river. She was riddled with bullets and burned and the following guns, with their ammunition, were captured: A one-pounder, one Colt automatic gun, and one Nordenfeldt twenty-five-millimeter gun.

The crew of the Urdaneta were prisoners or had been killed.

The Urdaneta was a little craft of only forty tons displacement, not much larger than a small tug. She was captured by the navy early in the war and had been on police duty in the bay.

General Snyder attacked the position of the insurgents five miles west of Cebu and destroyed seven forts and quite a number of smooth-bore cannon. The insurgents were utterly routed and Snyder returned with his force to Cebu. The Tennessee regiment was already aboard transport to come home, but disembarked to take part in the engagement.

Following is the text of General Otis' message:

Manila, Sept. 26.—Adjutant-General, Washington: On September 22 and 23 Snyder attacked strong insurgent positions about five miles west of Cebu with 265 officers and men, Tennessee regiment, and 517 officers and men, Nineteenth, Sixth and Twenty-third Infantry, and Sixth Artillery, driving enemy from works and capturing seven forts, including smooth-

bore cannons mounted therein and fourteen intrenched and fortified places.

"Our loss one killed and four wounded.

"Enemy's loss estimated to be forty.

"Insurgents retreated to new fortifications far southwest. Snyder returned to Cebu with Tennessee troops, who had disembarked from transport Indiana to take part in action. Two companies of Nineteenth Infantry hold important positions in mountains. OTIS."

General MacArthur entered Porac after half an hour's fighting on September 28. The enemy fled northward. When the Americans entered the town they found it practically deserted.

The attacking party moved on Porac in two columns. The Ninth Infantry, with two guns, from Santa Rita, was commanded by General Wheeler, and the Thirty-sixth Infantry, under Colonel Bell, with one gun, accompanied General MacArthur from San Antonio.

Both columns struck the town at 9 o'clock and opened a brisk fire, which was replied to by the enemy for half an hour. Then the insurgents fled and the Americans marched over their trenches and took possession of the place. Just before the fight Smith's command, at Angeles, made a demonstration by firing artillery up to the railroad track.

Liscum reported one casualty and Bell reported four men of his regiment wounded. The artillery did not have any men injured.

The movement was a strategical success and resulted in the possession of Porac and the clearing of several miles of country thereabout.

The two columns, one from Santa Rita and the other from San Antonio, united before Porac, according to programme, stretching around the place for some miles.

The insurgents numbered 600 men. Ten dead Filipinos were found and the captain and commissary of Mascarno's command were taken prisoners.

The American lost was five killed, but there were many prostrations from the heat.

Englishmen from the insurgent lines reported that the Filipinos at Bamban had 7,000 new Japanese rifles.

The insurgents intrenched and garrisoned the town of Paeto, on Laguna de Bay, in the province of Laguna.

CHAPTER L.

RETURN OF ADMIRAL DEWEY.

IMMENSE OVATION IN NEW YORK, WITH LAND AND NAVAL PARADES, MILLIONS CHEER THE HERO OF MANILA—PRESENTATION IN WASHINGTON OF THE SWORD VOTED BY CONGRESS.

THE RETURN of Admiral Dewey to the United States was the occasion of the greatest demonstration in which the American people ever indulged. Every state in the union was represented in the celebration which was held in New York, and prominent men in every walk of life were present to do him honor. In addition to the population of New York it is estimated that 3,000,000 people from other states were there. It was an ovation worthy of the greatest hero in the greatest age of the world's history.

Admiral Dewey, on the Olympia, left Manila May 20. The trip was a slow one, and stops were made at many points along the homeward route. At all of these the admiral was accorded an ovation. He was lavishly entertained both by foreign navy and army officers and by our own foreign consuls.

The Olympia arrived at Honkong May 23. Admiral Dewey was suffering from the effects of the strain he had been through and the climate, so he rested on shore several days, returning to his ship June 6. The Olympia resumed the homeward journey on the following day.

The next stop was at Singapore, where the Olympia put in June 12. There it was reported the admiral's health had greatly improved.

Three days were spent at this port and then the Olympia put in at Colombo, Ceylon, on the 22d. A reception was there tendered to the admiral, and he made a speech before a small gathering.

After the admiral had been wined and dined he started for Port

Said. Dewey arrived at Suez on July 13. He spent three days in port and set sail again, saying he wanted to reach New York as soon as possible.

Trieste was the next port, the Olympia arriving there July 21. During his stay he was banqueted by Minister Harris. Many invitations were refused by the admiral, he pleading that he was busy with his correspondence and moreover needed rest.

The Olympia left Trieste for Naples August 2, arriving there four days later. Again the admiral was obliged to attend a banquet in his honor, and being overwhelmed with invitations beat a retreat by sailing for Leghorn.

Here the admiral was stricken with fever, which kept him below decks for two days. He had completely recovered August 19 and sailed for Villefranche on the 22d. The run occupied only one day. Dewey visited the palace in Villefranche and made several calls in Villefranche and in Nice.

It was from Villefranche that Dewey cabled the reception committee he would arrive in New York September 28. The next stop was Nice, where the Olympia put in on the 29th.

The Olympia went to Gibraltar September 4. There Dewey coaled his vessel and got her in shape for the trip to New York. The Olympia sailed from Gibraltar September 10. The run from Honkong was 12,000 miles, and the average speed made was nine knots an hour.

The Olympia arrived off Sandy Hook the morning of September 26, two days ahead of scheduled time. The admiral reported his arrival in a matter of fact way and received a message of welcome from Secretary Long. The following day the Olympia went to anchorage at Tompkinsville.

According to the Olympia's papers there were 442 men aboard that vessel, ranging from admiral to cabin boy. Of these the officers and 149 enlisted men fought on the ship in the battle of Manila Bay. The remainder were recruited since then or were taken from other vessels of the Asiatic squadron as the Olympia prepared for her homeward voyage.

The following was Mayor Van Wyck's speech of welcome:

"Admiral Dewey: With pleasure and by the direction of the City of New York I meet you at her magnificent gateway to extend to you in her name and of her million visitors, leading citizens of forty-five states,

representing almost every hamlet in the nation, a most cordial welcome, congratulating you upon being restored to family and home.

"A loving and grateful nation is gladdened by your safe return from the most remarkable voyage of history, so far-reaching in its results that the clearest mind cannot yet penetrate the distance. It has already softened the voices of other nations in speaking of ours, changed permanently the map of the world, enlarged the field of American pride, and completed the circle of empire in its western course.

"Your courage, skill and wisdom, exhibited in a single naval engagement of a few hours, brought victory to your country's arms, and then you dealt with your country's new relations to the world with the judgment of a trained diplomat. By common consent you have been declared warrior and statesman, one who wears the military uniform until the enemy surrenders, and then dons the habit of the diplomat.

"The greatest reception awaits you that was ever tendered military or civil hero. Such an outpouring of the people was never dreamed of before. Never has the heart of America turned with such perfect accord and trusting confidence to one of her sons as it does to you. I place at your disposal the freedom and unlimited hospitality of the City of New York."

Admiral Dewey replied:

"Mr. Mayor and Gentlemen:—Of course it would be needless for me to attempt to make a speech, but my heart appreciates all that you have said.

"How it is that you have overrated my work so much I cannot understand. It is beyond anything I can conceive of why there should be such an uprising of the country. I simply did what any naval captain in the service would have done, I believe."

"Admiral," said Mayor Van Wyck, "no tongue can ever utter or pen write an overestimate of what you did for your country. The City of New York has made to commemorate this reception to you, the hero of the Spanish-American war, a badge, a facsimile of which they desire I should present to you in commemoration of the event."

"How magnificent, how beautiful, how splendid," exclaimed Admiral Dewey as he received the medal. "Oh, that is too beautiful! (Calls Chinese attendant.) Now, pin that there, sir, so it won't drop off."

One of the pleasant incidents of Thursday was the presentation to the

crew of the Olympia of the medals voted by congress to the sailors at the battle of Manila. Captain Lamberton distributed them among the members of the crew, who were drawn up in line on deck.

The medals are of bronze, somewhat smaller than a silver dollar. On the obverse is a medallion bust of Admiral Dewey and the legend:

Gift of the people of
the United States
to the officers and men of the Asiatic
squadron, under command of
Commodore George Dewey.

The reverse was a half-nude figure of a seaman astride a big gun. It bears the legend:

In memory of
the victory of Manila Bay,
May 1, 1898.
U. S. S. Olympia.

The medal was pendant from a pin bearing a spread eagle in the center and a laurel wreath and a fighting top on either side.

Among the members of the crew receiving medals was Purdy—Purdy the seaman in charge of the hold of the Olympia and a veteran of three wars. He was born in 1828 and has fought in the Mexican war, the civil war and the war with Spain.

The event of the celebration was the naval parade on September 29. Aside from the excursion steamers in the parade, a great number of battleships and yachts entered the procession.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PARADE.

Very early the fleet of steamships, steamboats, yachts and tugs which were to have a place in line began moving down the bay to the allotted points where the several divisions were in form. Many of them, though, could not resist the temptation first to visit the anchorage of the men-of-war off Tompkinsville, and before 11 o'clock the Olympia was surrounded by a perfect mob of every known kind of craft, all swarming with

people, circling around or pushing their noses close up under the ship to get a glimpse of the admiral pacing the quarter deck.

The bands aboard the excursion boats played and the whistles and sirens of the other craft made the air hideous by their shrieks. They kept coming, coming in pairs and half-dozens, until they lay a dozen deep resisting the charges of the patrol boats in their determination to get up within shouting distance.

Their recklessness was amazing. They ran across each other's bows, they rubbed against one another, they pushed bow on stern, until further movement seemed paralyzed by the inextricable confusion.

It was with great difficulty that the police boats could clear a passage for the admiral's launch when he went off to return the official visit of the mayor at noon, and when he did step into his launch the patriotic skippers afloat grabbed their whistle cords and made the hills echo with their blast.

And that was simply the prelude to what continued through the day —an almost continuous roar of steam whistles.

Meantime the vessels to take part in the parade were massing over near the Long Island shore, until that side of the harbor became a tangle of stacks and flags and framework as far as the eye could reach.

The grassy slopes of Wadsworth and Fort Hamilton, and the wharves and shores of Staten Island were covered with sightseers, watching the fleet below.

The warships lay spick and span, ready for the start, their burnished metal flaming in the sun, their sides white as virgin snow. Between them and the shore lay the low, long, lean, wicked looking torpedo boats and still inside of them the graceful flotilla of revenue cutters.

A brother and the widow of Captain Gridley, who fought the Olympia in Manila bay; Colonel Franklin Bartlett, former representative in congress from New York and an intimate personal friend of the admiral, together with three newspaper men, were the only civilians aboard.

One of the naval guests was the engineer of the Olympia, when it led the way past Corregidor Island. He was given three rousing cheers as he went forward to see the men.

Immediately after Admiral Dewey returned from the Sandy Hook the wig-wagger on the bridge signaled the fleet to prepare to get under way. The gangways were hauled up and the booms rigged. An old quartermaster hurried a small dark roll of bunting to the main, hand

over fist. It hung there while the bugle sounded the call to quarters, and the marines were mustered aft.

FARRAGUT'S FLAG WAVES.

Then, just as the signal to weigh was given, a pull on the halyards opened the roll and spread the four-starred flag which Admiral Farragut flew as he ran by the fort at New Orleans. It was the flag which was presented to Admiral Dewey. As it broke, sailors at their stations and the marines on the quarter-deck greeted it with the "Hip, hip hoorah" we got from our ancestors.

It was exactly 1 o'clock, the hour fixed for the start, when the fleet, with anchors short hove, began to move. The ships had swung to the flood tide and were pointing down stream, but with their twin screws they faced about as on pivots and headed for the Hudson, followed by the long line of vessels in civic parade.

MILES IN LENGTH.

When the ships had straightened out for their journey across the upper bay the spectacle they made will ever be treasured in the memory of those who saw it. In advance of the Olympia was a double line of patrol and fire boats—a lilliputian fleet to clear the way of unofficial trespassers. It did not require much persuasion, either, as the skippers had a wholesome respect for the steel ram of the mighty sea monsters.

On the port beam of the Olympia was the escorting ship Sandy Hook, with the mayor and other dignitaries aboard, and in her wake, at intervals of 400 yards, stretched out a mile long, were the great towering warships. The rest of the procession tailed out for miles.

Slowly and majestically the procession moved across the shiny waters. Admiral Dewey went up on the after bridge as soon as the start was made and remained there throughout the parade, a heroic figure outlined against the skies for the thousands afloat and ashore. With him on the bridge most of the time was Colonel Bartlett, to whom he talked when he was not acknowledging the salutes or personally directing the movements of his immediate fleet.

The untold thousands who thronged the wharves and piers, who leaned from the windows and balconies and looked down from the dizzy heights of sky scrapers, must have impressed the admiral greatly, but

his modesty would not permit him to view it all as a personal ovation.

A special committee, consisting of St. Clair McKelway, Richard Croker, Chauncey M. Depew, W. W. Foster, William McAdoo and Levi P. Morton, was appointed to care for the personal comfort of Admiral Dewey during the land and naval parades.

The exercises and incidents leading up to the land parade were of a character never to be forgotten.

The admiral left the Olympia at 7 o'clock Saturday morning and went with great haste to the Battery. There he took a carriage for the city hall, where he was to receive the loving cup.

Crowds lined Broadway and cheered the admiral as he passed. He seemed impressed by the display of flags, which fluttered overhead and on either side in profusion. He looked around him with apparent wonder as he bowed and smiled to the crowds.

As the carriage passed Trinity church patriotic airs were rung on the chimes.

At Beaver street one of the horses ridden by a trooper of the escort became frightened and backed against the carriage in which the admiral was sitting. Its rider had a hard fight to bring it into line again, but Dewey did not even glance at the animal.

At the eastern entrance of City Hall Park, the carriages halted to give the mounted escort time to take positions on the broad plaza, and then rolled up to the stand in front of the city hall. The admiral alighted and was welcomed by Mayor Van Wyck, who hastened out of his office when he learned that the city's guest was arriving half an hour ahead of the time he was expected.

Rear Admiral Schley was on the stand when Admiral Dewey ascended. He stepped forward and the two men shook hands, while the crowd hurrahed. The ceremony of presentation then took place.

HEARTY WORDS OF GREETING.

Governor Roosevelt, unaided, pushed forward and shook the admiral's hand. Then he was swept aside in the surge.

General Miles arrived late. He, too, came unattended, and failed to reach the admiral at all.

For these men, who had yesterday enjoyed the favor of the people, the latter had no care. They wanted only the admiral, and they followed his every movement with an intensity bordering on actual worship.

Admiral Dewey's first greeting to the mayor was in his customary simple, hearty manner. "How are you? How are you?" he said, taking Mayor Van Wyck's hand in both of his. To each and every man and woman who pressed forward to shake his hand, if possible, the admiral vouchsafed the same cheery greeting. The whole ceremony occupied less than twenty minutes.

Hordes of school children arrived early at the city hall and were seated opposite the platform which Admiral Dewey and Mayor Van Wyck occupied.

Tier on tier of children in cloaks and overcoats greeted Admiral Dewey when he appeared to receive the loving cup. As soon as he entered the platform they rose en masse and cheered until their throats were sore, waving American flags and streamers of bunting.

In presenting the loving cup Mayor Van Wyck said:

"The true dignity of manhood can never be overestimated in the study of the influences which build up or preserve a state. Hero worship, if it be merely a manifestation of a full recognition and appreciation of such manhood in the individual leader's performance of duty to State, either in war or peace, is most commendable. It holds up his high standard to be emulated by the living as well as the unborn millions to be. To such a hero death itself bows, for he lives in memory all the time.

ESTIMATE BY THE NATION.

"In this spirit I shall not hesitate in this presence to briefly express America's estimate of your character and achievements. The nation would gladly have its dominion extended over the face of the globe in order that admiring millions of additional fellow citizens might be here to-day to pay homage to you and welcome you back.

"Your countrymen are interested in and know every detail of your life. Your joys and your sorrows are theirs. They have traced your ancestry and your character and deeds from the cradle rocked by a fond mother to the Olympia rocked by the rolling waves of the mighty deep.

ADMIRAL'S CAREER TRACED.

"They listen with delight to the story of the fighting Deweys bravely doing their duty in every war of their country for 250 years; of your

pointing out, when a mere child, to your father the pictures in the clouds of ships and battles, including the battle of Lake Erie and the form of Perry saving his country's flag from the disabled ship; of the devotional impress stamped upon your character by a loving mother; of your struggle with the school-master, which taught the necessity of discipline in the affairs of life; of your inherited love for children and music; of your later bright and vivacious boyhood; mingled with the mischievous, but never with the malicious; of your deferential respect for those of your mother's sex; of the romance of your courtship and happy marriage; of your service under Admiral Farragut in the Gulf squadron as the executive officer of the Mississippi, when you plunged iron shot and shell through the armor of the Confederate ram Manassas; of the sturdy and fearless manner in which you defended your ship against the guns of Port Hudson, and the quiet and orderly manner in which you abandoned her when she sank, calling for special commendation of your superiors in their report; of the circumstances that between wars, Farragut for forty-eight years and you for thirty-seven years, devoted yourselves to the study of your professions and both at the end of a long peace were found fully equipped and ready to give their country splendid service and to raise themselves to the highest plane of fame and renown.

"The romance of sea warfare has charmed and enchanted the imagination of man as no other theme has ever done, arousing in him the sentiment of patriotism and inspiring the poet with songs of his country and her heroes. This has always been so, whether in the times when Neptune with trident rode the sea in shell-shaped boat drawn by dolphins, or when the Vikings rode the North main carrying all before them, or when the sea kings with the modern navy were stationed upon the ocean to guard and protect the equal rights of civilized governments and their commerce upon the highway of the sea.

"The world stood enthralled, and then broke out in loud huzzahs which can never be silenced when the electric sparks flashed out the news over the globe that on the 1st of May, 1898, your fleet had destroyed in Manila Bay the Spanish navy, silencing the forts and taking the Philippine Islands, thus stripping the East of every vestige of Spanish domination.

"Spain was that moment conquered. The Pacific Ocean was that instant cleared of hostile forces, leaving to the remainder of our naval

and land forces the task of sweeping clean the Atlantic Ocean and her islands of the depressed, half-famished and scattered bands of Spanish stragglers.

"This was all accomplished in a naval battle of less than seven hours, including the coolly ordered intermission for breakfast. Not an American killed, but 200 Spaniards laid low, 700 wounded, the Spanish navy destroyed and an empire lost to her forever! History records no achievement of such superb completeness as the battle in Manila Bay.

"This demonstration is no mere tribute to a personal friend, a fellow citizen. It is a single and deserved recognition of the debt due the public servant who has proved himself grandly and efficiently faithful to his country's welfare and honor.

"You are called a man of destiny. You are, but it is the destiny of merit and worth—the conscientious obedience to duty of one skilled in art and judgment.

"Our republic has no reason to fear a comparison of her sea fighters with those of other nations. The birth of the republic gave to her Paul Jones, the war for the freedom of the ocean highways gave her Perry, and the war for her moral and physical integrity gave her Farragut. She points with pride to any of this trinity, and says to all nations: Match him if you can. The war against Spain, waged for common humanity's sake in behalf of her island neighbors, gave her Dewey, who can safely be proclaimed chief among the naval heroes of the world.

"The route of these idolized nautical sons of the republic is well marked. Their exploits go resounding through time, partaking of the vast and overwhelming character of the ocean upon which they rode, lived, acted and attained their great achievements, which are the pride of all Americans.

"From your entry to your departure from Manila Bay you were a history maker, and if the old style prevailed of naming the period after him who bore the most illustrious name of any living man, this would be known as the Dewey age. Solitary in the grandeur of your achievements, you are lifted above all those who have gone before you.

"To the Mayor has been assigned the personally pleasant duty of presenting to you, in the name of the City of New York, the metropolis of our country, this loving cup, a keepsake to remind you from time to time of her love for you and her special pride in your deeds of valor, which she believes for ages to come will insure full respect of all nations

and people for our starry flag, whether flung to the breeze over the man-of-war or over the ship of commerce."

Then came the tears to Admiral Dewey's eyes. After giving evidence of deep emotion and struggling to say something, he expressed his simple thanks.

The loving cup was of Roman form and was made of 18-carat gold. The handles were formed of three dolphins, wrought in green gold. Around the neck were forty-five stars, emblematic of the Union.

The body of the cup was divided by the handles into three panels, which were employed for the principal decorations. On the front panel was a portrait in relief of Admiral Dewey, surrounded with a wreath of oak leaves, the whole resting on an eagle with outstretched wings. Underneath this panel upon the band around the foot were the letters, "G. D., U. S. N."

The second panel had chased in half relief a raised figure of the Olympia, and beneath was a shield with four stars, betokening the recipient's grade.

On the third panel was an escutcheon, upon which was engraved the inscription, with the names of the Mayor and members of the Municipal Assembly and of the committee of plan and scope. The coat of arms of the City of New York appeared below the inscription. About the foot were a series of anchors, a rope tied in three knots, dolphins, seaweed, and other nautical devices.

The cup stood thirteen inches high, had a capacity of four and a half quarts and cost $5,000.

With the end of the loving-cup ceremonies the Admiral was hastened away to the Sandy Hook, to be carried up North River to Grant's tomb and the head of the land parade. The land parade started at 11 o'clock.

It was a repetition of the ovation Admiral Dewey received the day previous at the naval parade.

Admiral Dewey's arrival in Washington at 6:50 o'clock, October 2, was hailed with booming cannon and a pandemonium of screaming whistles. His passage up Pennsylvania avenue was a splendid tribute of the masses to a national hero. At the White House there was for the first time in many years a meeting between the Admiral of the Navy and the Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy. Fifteen minutes were enough for Admiral Dewey to report to Secretary Long of the

Navy Department in the east room and to be escorted to President McKinley, his commander-in-chief.

It was a quiet meeting between the President and the Admiral, with no prying reportorial eyes to catch their greetings or paint the flitting play of their faces in cold words. It must have been a meeting full of interest and intensity, but fifteen minutes sufficed for the conquerer to meet President and Mrs. McKinley and several members of the Cabinet and their wives.

The distinguished party went at once to the reviewing stand directly under Secretary Gage's windows on the treasury grounds. Standing at the front of the platform on a projection representing the prow of the Olympia, Admiral Dewey's eyes swept over the scene of splendor stretching away for a mile to the white-domed capitol.

Then for nearly two hours huzzahing columns passed in review. They were composed of organizations representing the civic life of America, for the military display was reserved for the next day.

Admiral Dewey's journey from New York was a continuous ovation. The train, as it reached the line of the District of Columbia, stopped for a few minutes at the little station of Deanwood while the reception committee went through the formality of presenting the nation's guest the freedom of the district. The ceremony was performed by District Commissioner Wight in the presence of the Admiral's fleet captains, the military and naval members of the party and as many of the reception committee as could be crowded into the Admiral's car. John Addison Porter, secretary to the President, first extended President McKinley's greetings, to which the Admiral returned his thanks very briefly. Commissioner Wight then said:

"Admiral Dewey, you are now in the District of Columbia, and, representing the commissioners of the district, I have the honor of tendering you the freedom of the nation's capital, and in behalf of the people of the district, from the most exalted to the humblest citizen, I give you a sincere and cordial welcome home. We feel gratified that Washington is to be your future home. It is the best place in the world in which to have a home, and it is fitting that you, who have done so much for the nation, should make your future home in the nation's capital. The people of Washington will esteem it not only a pleasure but an honor to do all in their power to make your stay with us as pleasant as your services have been successful in Manila."

Admiral Dewey's reply was as brief and characteristic as all of his other speeches have been.

"I want to thank you, my friends," said he, "for this testimonial of your regard. It is true that as long as I live—and I hope to live a long time—(cheers)—I intend to live in Washington. I thank you again for this expression."

Troop H of the Third United States Cavalry, under the command of Lieutenant Merillat, escorted the Admiral to the executive mansion.

As Dewey's carriage swung around the treasury toward the White House a brilliant spectacle was spread out before him. To the right Lafayette Square was ablaze with electric lights, the great trees and flower beds sparkling with many-hued lights, while in the midst shone out in large electric letters "Welcome Admiral." The Navy Department beyond was ablaze with lights, as were the White House grounds.

A mighty roar went up from the crowd as the Admiral alighted at the portico of the executive mansion. As he stepped from the carriage Colonel Bingham, representing the President, stepped forward to escort him to the east room, where Secretary Long, Assistant Secretary Allen and a brilliant assemblage of officials were ready to extend to him the greeting of the navy. Secretary Long was at the door, and as the Admiral entered, the secretary grasped his hand and with enthusiasm said:

"Admiral, I welcome you home! This is the Navy Department for the moment, and your associates of the navy are assembled here to give you a hearty greeting."

"Thank you; thank you," responded Admiral Dewey, first exchanging a few words of greeting with the secretary and then with Mr. Allen and the other officials.

The greetings with the Cabinet were brief, and then the President and Admiral Dewey, arm in arm, headed the party toward the reviewing stand. The crowd seemed to know the hero was approaching, for a great wave of cheering went up and Pennsylvania avenue was bathed in light from end to end.

The Admiral frequently bowed his acknowledgments. The President and Admiral Dewey were joined at the front of the stand by Secretaries Hay, Root, Hitchcock and Wilson and Postmaster General Smith, officers of the Olympia and other naval officials.

The head of the civic parade which had been arranged in honor of

the Admiral began to pass in review before him shortly after 8 o'clock. There were many novel and interesting features, relieving the sameness of the ordinary civic parade. The spectacle as the marchers came up the length of the avenue in the glare of the red lights, under sweeping arches of stars from thousands of roman candles, was beautiful and impressive. The beginning of the march was heralded by the bursting of thousands of giant crackers, while bombs along the line sent showers of fire into the air.

The culmination of Admiral Dewey's triumphal home-coming was reached Tuesday, October 3d, in the shadow of the dome of the national capitol. Here he received from the hands of the President the magnificent jeweled sword voted him by Congress in commemoration of the victory of Manila Bay.

Like everything connected with Dewey's record, he was early in arriving at the capitol, being half an hour ahead of time. Two committeemen preceded the President and Admiral Dewey. The waiting crowd uncovered and the President and the Admiral promptly did the same as they passed rapidly into the lobby of the Senate. Dewey was followed by his war captains, and the full Cabinet acted as an escort. The President, with his Cabinet, was shown into the President's room, while Admiral Dewey, with his captains, occupied the room of the Vice President. There was a wait of half an hour, and then the party took up its march to the stand in the same order as it had entered the capitol.

A gun sounded in the direction of the river just as the sun reached the meridian. There was a flourish from the Marine band as the head of the procession reached the edge of the portico. The band struck into the soul-moving strains of "Hail to the Chief" as the procession moved slowly down the steps to the stand. The crowd cheered as the members of the party took their seats, Admiral Dewey rising with his bared head to respond to the ovation.

Prayer was offered by Rev. Dr. Bristol, President McKinley's pastor. Ross Perry then made the introductory address, which was lustily cheered:

"Admiral Dewey—The nation's capital welcomes you, the nation's hero. The City of Washington welcomes you who, in the roundness and completeness of your character, approach the perfect orb of that supreme man whose name it bears. Like him, you, too, have anticipated the

fame of immortality. Long may you live to enjoy it. May you live long to truly prove the love and honor of a grateful people.

"America has never lacked great men. When the crucial hour in her history has struck, the man of the crisis has appeared. A great man gazed through the darkness of time and space and saw upon the horizon the star of a new world. Great men plowed unknown seas, pierced boundless forests, subdued savage foes and wrought the harsh features of the wilderness into the smiling face of this fair land. Our colonial infancy, our provincial youth, our struggling manhood have been fostered and protected by the wisdom and the courage of great men. Their blood has given us independence abroad and freedom at home. We have withstood foreign war and domestic malice chiefly through them. To them it is due that we but yesterday stood a united although an isolated nation and sent forth to the world a challenge in the name of humanity.

"It was your singular good fortune that made you the challenger. But it was altogether your own great qualities that made the challenge good; that won the fight; that maintained the victory; that put the nation's flag so high in the eastern sky that all could see it; that made the whole world know and say that our nation is a citizen of the world, come to play a man's part and to demand a man's power and honor. These great qualities the nation to-day formally recognizes. Happy you who hear with your own ears what too often the children of the great listen to. May you live so long that you will behold your own best monument in your country's good, grown greater through your deeds. Again, welcome to your own true home—this city of the nation."

He ended by introducing Secretary Long, who was received with enthusiasm, and, standing bareheaded in the sunshine, addressed his remarks to Admiral Dewey, who remained bareheaded and seated. The speech was received with applause.

Secretary Long spoke as follows:

"My Dear Admiral—Let me read a few extracts from our official correspondence, covering less than a fortnight's time and now known the world over.

"'Washington, April 24, 1898.—Dewey, Hong Kong: War has commenced between the United States and Spain. Proceed at once to

Philippine Islands. Begin operations at once, particularly against the Spanish fleet. You must capture or destroy. Use utmost endeavors.

'LONG.'

"'Manila, May 1.—Secretary of the Navy, Washington: The squadron arrived at Manila at daybreak this morning. Immediately engaged the enemy and destroyed the following vessels. * * * The squadron is uninjured. Few men were slightly wounded. DEWEY.'

"'May 4.—Secretary of the Navy, Washington: I have taken possession of naval station Philippine Islands. I control bay completely and can take city at any time. The squadron in excellent health and spirits. I am assisting and protecting sick and wounded.

'DEWEY.'

"'Washington, May 17, 1898.—Dewey: The President, in the name of the American people, thanks you and your officers and men for your splendid achievement and overwhelming victory. In recognition he has appointed you acting Rear Admiral and will recommend a vote of thanks to you by Congress as a foundation for further promotion.'

"In those few words, what a volume of history, what a record of swift, high, heroic discharge of duty; you went, you saw, you conquered. It seems but yesterday that the republic, full of anxiety, strained its listening ear to catch the first word from those distant islands of the sea. It came flashing over the wires that May morning as the sun bursts through the clouds, and filled every heart with the illumination of its good cheer. In the twinkling of an eye your name was on every lip; the blessing of every American was on your head, and your country strode instantly forward a mightier power among all nations of the world. As we welcome you back there comes back also the vivid picture of that time, with all its hopes and fears, and with all its swift succeeding triumph and glory.

"Let me now read the act of Congress in pursuance of which we are here:

"'Resolved, by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, that the Secretary of the Navy be and he is hereby authorized to present a sword of honor to Commodore George Dewey, and to cause to be struck bronze medals commemorating

the battle of Manila Bay, and to distribute such medals to the officers and men of the ships of the Asiatic squadron of the United States under command of Commodore George Dewey May 1, 1898; and that, to enable the secretary to carry out this resolution, the sum of $10,000, or so much thereof as may be necessary, is hereby appropriated out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated. Approved June 3, 1898.'

"It was by this solemn enactment, approved by the President, that the people of the United States made provisions for putting in material form one expression of their appreciation of your valor as an officer of their navy, and of your great achievement as their representative in opening the door to a new era in the civilization of the world.

"In this work, in view of the great part you have taken in the sudden development of her sovereignty, your full knowledge of the situation and the just hold you have on the hearts of all her people, she looks for your continued services and listens for your counsel in the high hope and purpose that the triumph of her peace shall be even greater than her triumph in war.

"Now, following the authorization of Congress, I present this sword of honor which I hold in my hand—my hand—rather let it go to you through the hand of one who in his youth also periled his life and fought for his country in battle and who to-day is the commander-in-chief of all our armies and navies, the President of the United States."

As Secretary Long concluded he passed the sword to President McKinley. The latter rose and faced the Admiral. Admiral Dewey was visibly affected and brushed his gloved hands across his eyes before standing at attention. The President said:

"Admiral Dewey, from your entrance into the harbor of New York with your gallant crew and valiant ship the demonstrations which everywhere have greeted you reveal the public esteem of your heroic action and the fullness of love in which you are held by your country.

"The voice of the nation is lifted in praise and gratitude for the distinguished and memorable services you have rendered the country, and all the people give you affectionate welcome home, in which I join with all my heart.

"Your victory exalted American valor and extended American authority. There was no flaw in your victory; there will be no faltering in maintaining it.

"It gives me extreme pleasure and great honor, in behalf of all the

people, to hand you this sword, the gift of the nation voted by the Congress of the United States."

The President handed the Admiral the sword with a deep bow, and there was a roar of applause as Admiral Dewey received it. The crowd was hushed as he turned to reply. Admiral Dewey said:

"I thank you, Mr. President, for this great honor you have conferred upon me. I thank the Congress for what it has done. I thank the Secretary of the Navy for his gracious words. I thank my countrymen for this beautiful gift, which shall be an heirloom in my family forever as an evidence that republics are not ungrateful, and I thank you, Mr. Chairman and gentlemen of the committee, for the gracious, cordial and kindly welcome which you have given me to my home."

The band played the "Star-Spangled Banner" and then Cardinal Gibbons pronounced the benediction.

The sword presented to Admiral Dewey, except its steel blade and the body metal of its scabbard, is entirely of twenty-two-carat gold. On the pommel is carved the name of the battleship Olympia and the zodiacal sign for December, in which lucky month Dewey was born. Circling these is a closely woven wreath of oak leaves, long employed to indicate and adorn rank. Below these the pommel is embraced by a gold collar, on the front of which are the arms of the United States, with the blue field of the shield in enamel. Below them are the arms of Vermont, Dewey's native State, with the motto, "Freedom and Unity," and the colors of the shield in enamel. The plain part of the gold collar is decorated with stars, and a graceful finish is given to it by a narrow band of oak leaves. The sword blade is damascened with the inscription:

The gift of the Nation to Rear Admiral
George Dewey, U. S. N., in Memory of
the Victory at Manila Bay, May 1, 1898.

The sword grip is covered with fine sharkskin, bound with gold wire and inlaid with gold stars. The guard is an eagle terminating in a claw which grasps the top in which the blade is set; the eagle's outstretched wings form the guard proper.

The scabbard is of thin steel, damascened in gold, with sprays.

Merely a friendly call.—Minneapolis Journal.

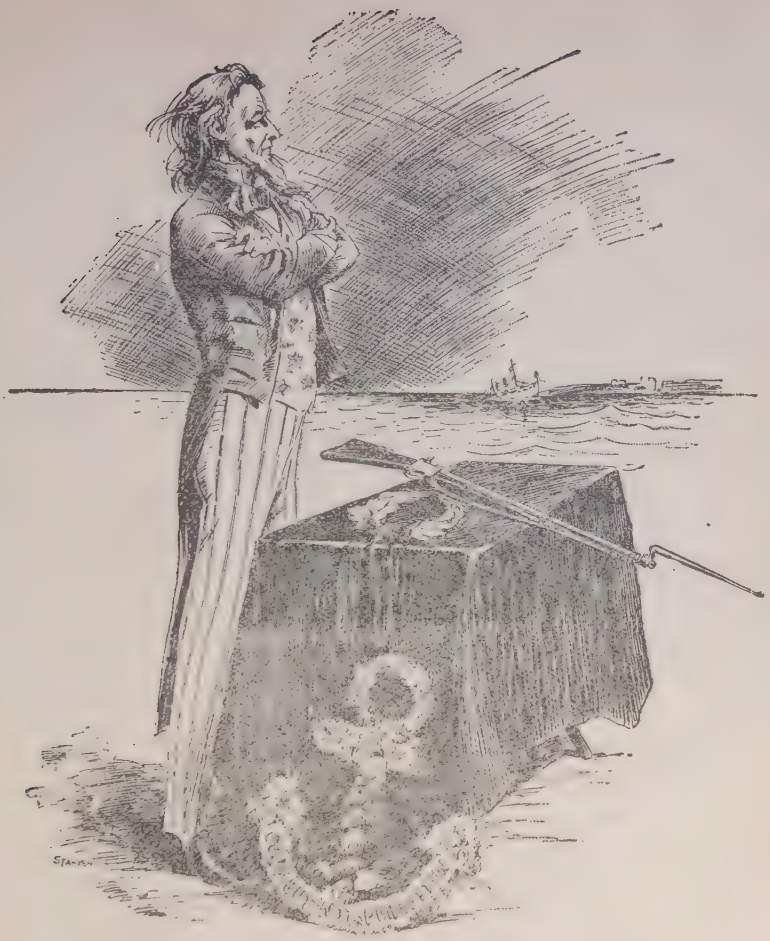
The avowed purpose of the Maine in entering Havana harbor was to make a friendly call, but as is well known, she went prepared to protect American interests with shot and shell if necessary. Uncle Sam, heavily armed, dropping in on Captain-General Blanco for a "friendly call," cleverly satirizes the incident.

"Tell your comrades (in Havana harbor) to 'keep cool and wait.'"
—Chicago Tribune.

When the people were demanding that the government should take quick action concerning the destruction of the Maine, certain administration papers were telling them to "keep cool and wait." The papers that favored war with Spain freely charged the administration press with advocating delay in the interest of Wall street, and the cartoonist has depicted the situation by showing Uncle Sam at a stock ticker telling the ghost of a Maine sailor to tell his dead comrades to keep cool and wait.

How long will it stand the pressure?—Chicago Record.

President McKinley had hard work to prevent radical action by Congress pending his controversy with Spain concerning Cuba. Chief Engineer McKinley in the above picture is wondering how long the congressional boiler will stand the pressure of pent up steam (oratory).



Patiently awaiting the verdict.—Syracuse Herald.

Uncle Sam is standing on his southern coast, looking toward the sunken Maine. He is waiting for the report of the board of inquiry. The floral anchor is his tribute to the brave sailors lost on the Maine. Upon the report of the board of inquiry depends whether he will take up the peace wreath or the musket.

GETTING TOO HOT.

SPEAKER REED TO MCKINLEY.—"Will, you've got to bank the fire some way or other; I can't hold in this steam much longer."—Minneapolis Tribune.

Following the destruction of the Maine Speaker Reed coöperated with President McKinley in preventing Congress from making a precipitate declaration of war. The picture represents the dome of the capitol with the Speaker and the President vainly trying to keep down the war sentiment.

Pride goeth before destruction.—New York World.

To Uncle Sam's ultimatum that Cuba should be free Spain refused to make any concessions, being largely restrained by a false national pride.

This picture represents Uncle Sam holding back the dogs of war.

THE MAN AND THE HOUR.

Chicago Tribune.

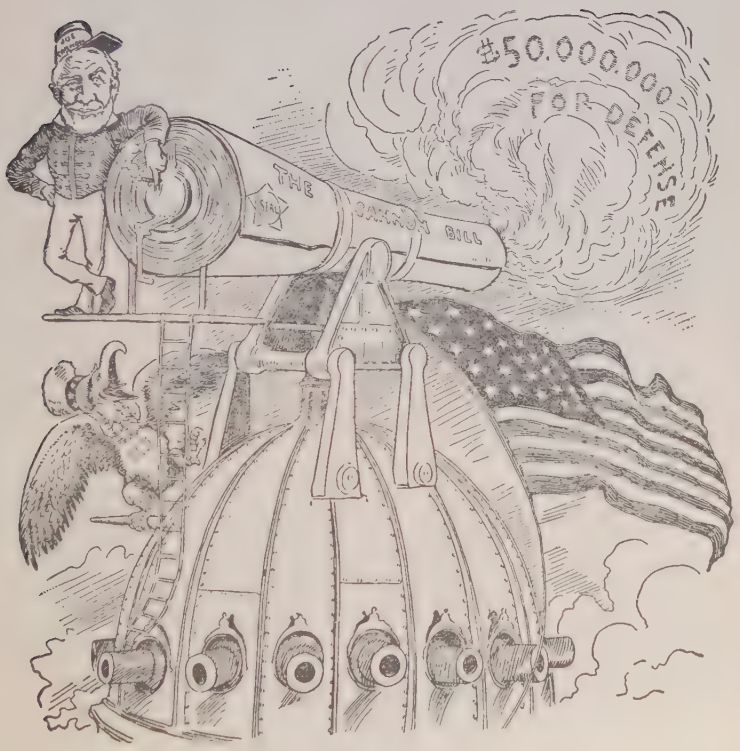
The time and date shown on the clock mark the declaration of war against Spain. President McKinley seizing Spain by the nape of the neck is the "man" to whom the picture refers.

UNCLE SAM TO THE EUROPEAN POWERS.

"No, thank you, gentlemen; too many cooks would spoil the broth."—Boston Globe.

Before the outbreak of hostilities with Spain the foreign ambassadors and ministers at Washington tendered their services for the adjustment of the dispute concerning Cuba, but were politely and firmly informed that the United States would not consider outside interference.

THE FIRST GUN.



Congress heard from.—Minneapolis Journal.

The "first gun," or more properly speaking the "first cannon," of the war was Congressman Joseph Cannon's bill appropriating $50,000,000 for national defense.

A vessel that makes our navy invincible.—St Louis Globe-Democrat.

As all the modern fighting ships are propelled by steam, coal is as essential as powder to naval success. The fact that the United States had an ample coal supply suggested the idea that a navy with an ample coal scuttle was invincible.

Johnny, get your gun!—Minneapolis Journal.

This illustration shows that when Uncle Sam called for troops more hands were held out for guns than there were guns to give.

"WILL I EVER FORGET IT?"
New York Herald.

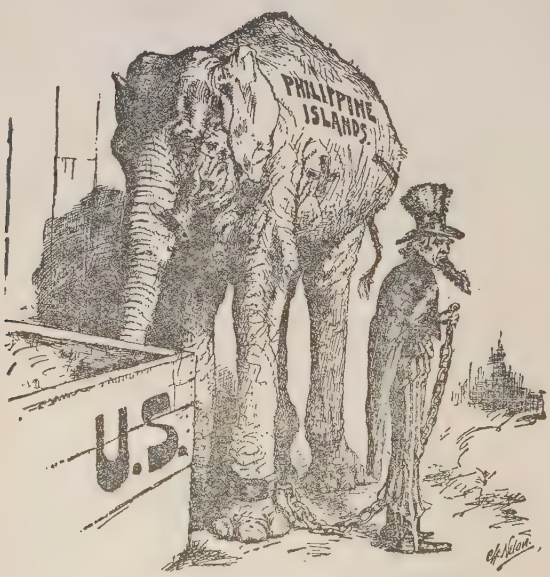
This cartoon appeared immediately after the battle of Manila. The punishment Spain received in that battle will forever cause her to "remember the Maine."

PRESIDENT McKINLEY.
Blanco y Negro, Madrid.

Blanco y Negro, meaning Black and White, in English, is a popular illustrated paper in Madrid. This is its caricaturist's idea of President McKinley.

The Manila incident reflected in the faces of Europe.—New York Bee.

Austria has a sinister expression; Germany doesn't know what to make of it; England is pleased; France is surprised; Russia is displeased, and Italy is amazed.

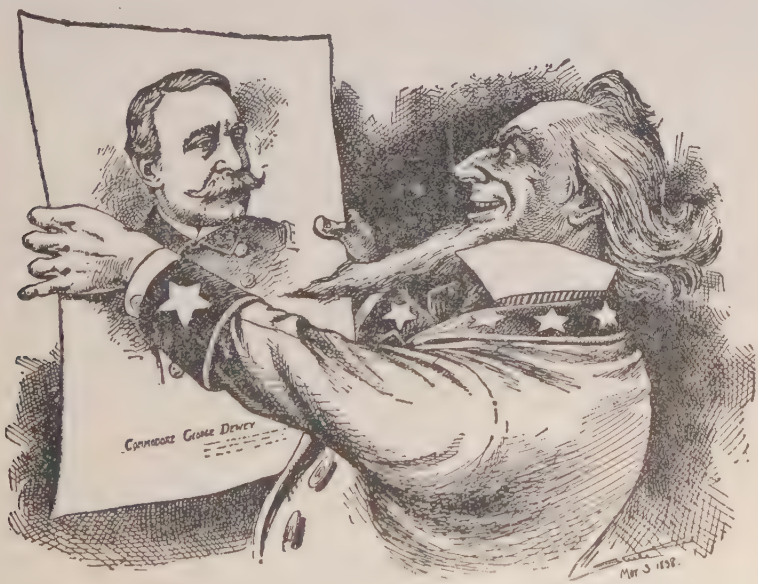


What will he do with it?—New York Herald.

When a person has acquired something that is of no use to him and is a constant source of care and expense we say that he has "an elephant on his hands." The artist thinks that the Philippine Islands are Uncle Sam's "elephant."

How Dewey is entrapped.—Syracuse Herald.

Before definite news had been received from Admiral Dewey's fleet at Manila, the Spaniards tried to make it appear that he had been led into a trap, but it was the Spanish rats (ships) that were caught in the trap (blockade), while Dewey played the part of a cunning mouser.



UNCLE SAM—"I'll just frame this."—Denver Post.

The look of admiration on the face of Uncle Sam as he gazes at a picture of Dewey, represents the national admiration for the hero of Manila when the people heard of his victory.

Will the big sentinel let him slip in at last?—Minneapolis Journal.

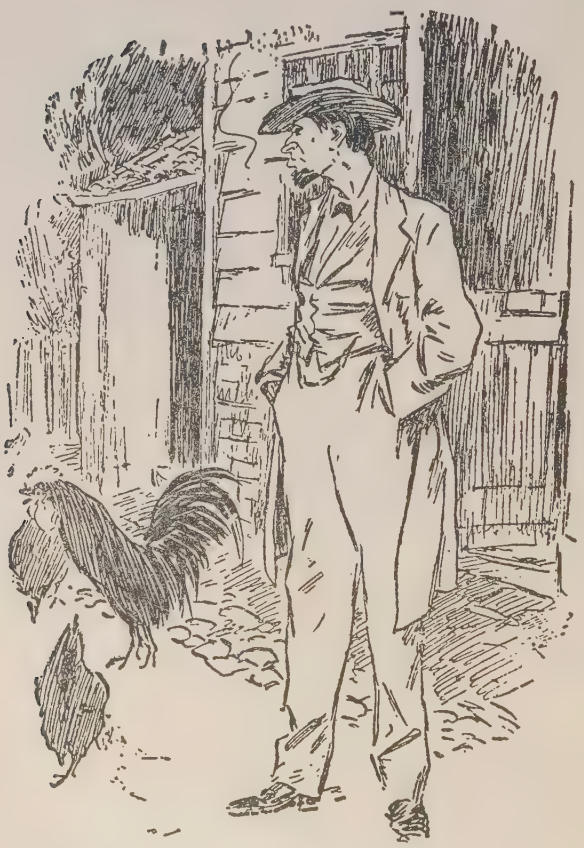
The admittance of Hawaii into the Union was vigorously opposed by Speaker Reed—the big sentinel in the above picture—but with the countersign of "a war necessity" the Pacific Republic skipped into Uncle Sam's dominion very much in the manner depicted in the above cartoon.

VERY KIND OF HIM.

PRESIDENT DOLE—"Accept a little gift from me—you might need it in your business."
—Minneapolis Tribune.

Immediately after the declaration of war the Republic of Hawaii, through President Dole, officially offered itself to the United States government—which offer was ultimately accepted.

THE PATRIOT, U. S. A.



Owner of Spanish poultry—"Guess I'll kill those fowls, anyway."—London Punch.

The patriotic farmers of Westchester County, N. Y., had such an intense hatred of Spain during the war that many of them killed the Spanish fowls they owned.

THE INTERNATIONAL FERRIS WHEEL.

"Just wait till I come up, then I'll get at old Yankee Sam!"

"Just wait till I come down, and I'll show the Yankee hog what a Spanish warrior can do!"

—Kladderadatsch, Berlin.

Throughout the war the Spaniards were constantly boasting of what they were going to do, if the Yankees would only wait. A German paper cleverly satirizes these boasts in the above cartoon.

Would make an excellent addition to our museum.—Philadelphia Inquirer.

No Spanish governor-general of Cuba was ever so thoroughly hated and detested as Weyler. The above picture, representing him as an ape, is probably the most expressive form in which public contempt for him could have been shown.

COMRADES.

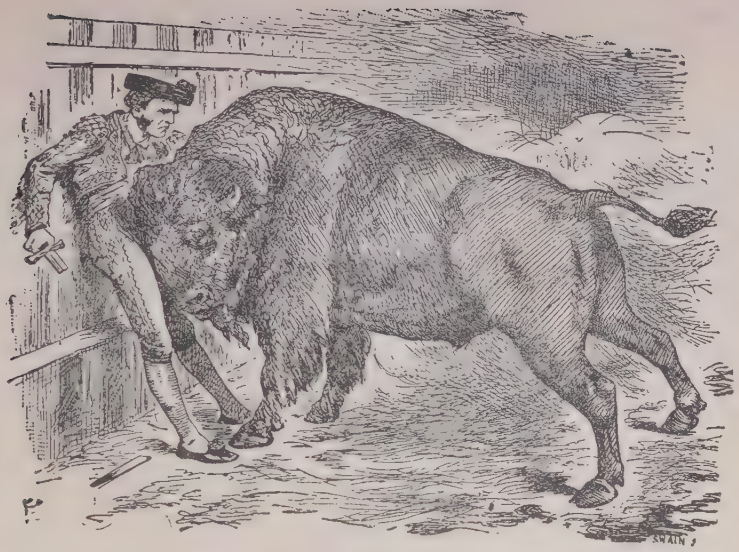
SANTIAGO AFTER THE SURRENDER.

THE CUBAN—"Say, ain't it time this ere shindig was stopped? Where in Cuba Libre do I come in?"—Syracuse Herald.

After the surrender of Santiago the American and Spanish soldiers mingled together on very friendly terms, which excited the jealousy of the Cubans and caused them to inquire as in the above cartoon, "Where do I come in?"

UNCLE SAM—"Now run along home and keep out of mischief."—Chicago Tribune.

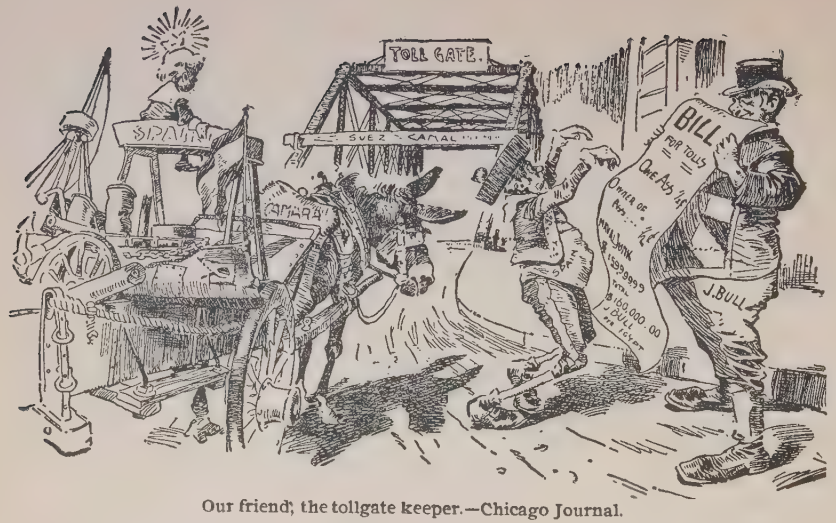
When the Spanish evacuation of Cuba took place the Spanish troops were sent back home in transports furnished and paid for by the United States government.



"Pinned."—London Punch.

The above cartoon represents the situation at the time Spain sued for peace. With her fleets destroyed and her army hemmed in at Santiago, Spain was in the exact position of the toreador (bull fighter) in the picture, pinned by the (American) Lison.

The above cartoon is from the principal comic paper of Mexico. The American squadron represented as a cat while the Spanish squadron in Santiago harbor is represented as a mouse, shows the relative positions of the ships of Admirals Schley and Cervera before the battle.



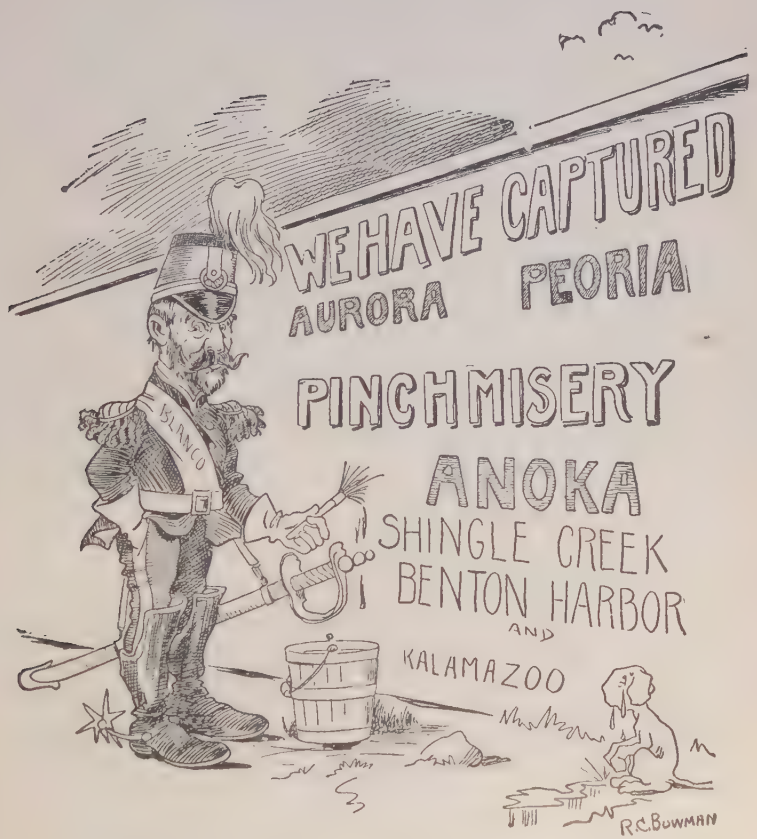
Our friend, the tollgate keeper.—Chicago Journal.

When Admiral Camara's squadron reached the Suez canal on the way to Manila it was stopped by the British authorities and required to pay a large amount in toll, and pay again when the squadron returned.

The sea serpent that shortly will be seen off the Spanish coast.—Boston Globe.

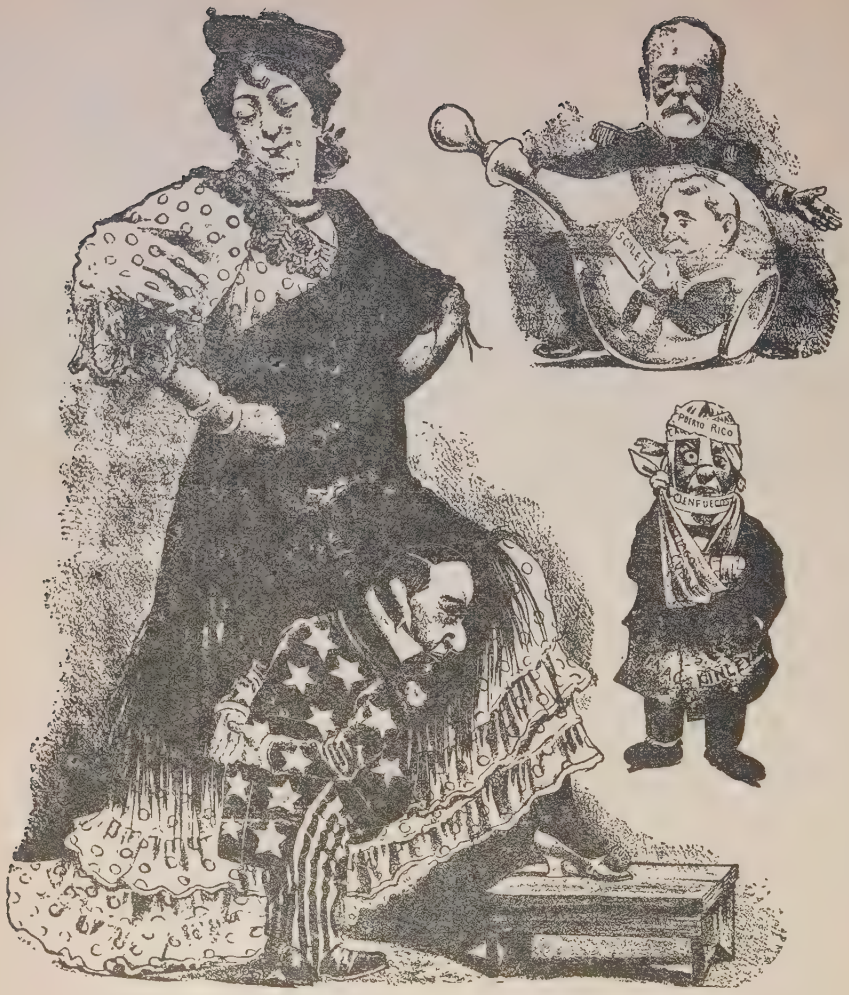
Just previous to Spain's request for peace President McKinley ordered a flying squadron assembled, under command of Commodore Watson, which was to be sent across the Atlantic to bombard the Spanish coast. The news created great consternation among the Spaniards at home.

SAMPLE SPANISH BULLETIN.



Edited by General Blanco.—Minneapolis Tribune.

The bulletins issued by Captain-General Blanco, of Cuba, relating to battles in the island, always claimed great victories for the Spanish troops.



1.—"You can't unbuckle that shoe!" 2.—Cervera bottles up Schley. —Don Quijote, Madrid. 3.—McKinley's condition.

1.—Spain, as a fair Senorita, is informing President McKinley that he has not sufficient strength to unbuckle one of her shoes. All the cartoons in the Spanish papers represented the president with the ears of a pig.

2.—The Spanish papers reported that Cervera had Schley's squadron bottled up.

3.—The same papers reported Spanish victories at Porto Rico, Cienfuegos and Santiago.

Don Quijote, from which the above cartoons are taken, is one of the principal comic papers of Madrid.

If the war brings nothing else, for this we are thankful.
—New York Herald.

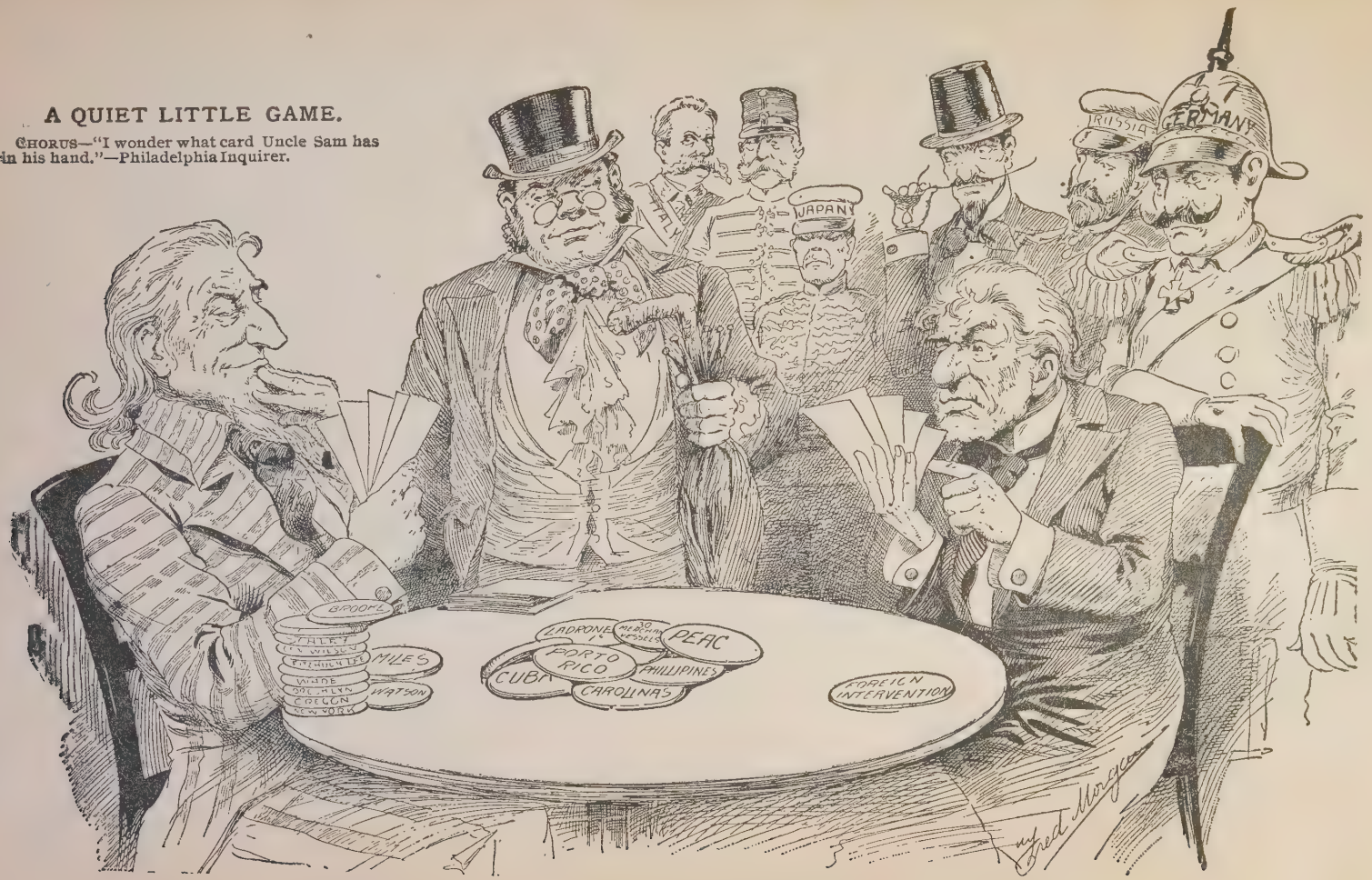
One result of the war was to completely reunite the North and South and reveal the sympathy and friendship between Great Britain and the United States.

Commander-in-chief.—Washington Post.

President McKinley for many years has been represented as Napoleon, both on account of his remarkable resemblance to the "little corporal" and because his successful methods in politics compared with those of Napoleon in war. He is shown in the above picture in the character of Napoleon leading the armies of the United States to victory.

A QUIET LITTLE GAME.

CHORUS—"I wonder what card Uncle Sam has in his hand."—Philadelphia Inquirer.



HOLDING HIS END UP.

JOHN BULL—"It's really most extraordinary what training will do. Why, only the other day I thought that man unable to support himself."—Philadelphia Inquirer.

The sudden strength displayed by Uncle Sam was a great surprise to Europe. Even his friend and kinsman, John Bull, did not think him capable of such an athletic performance as he is giving in the above picture, standing on the firm support of the army and navy.

IN TIME OF PEACE PREPARE FOR WAR.

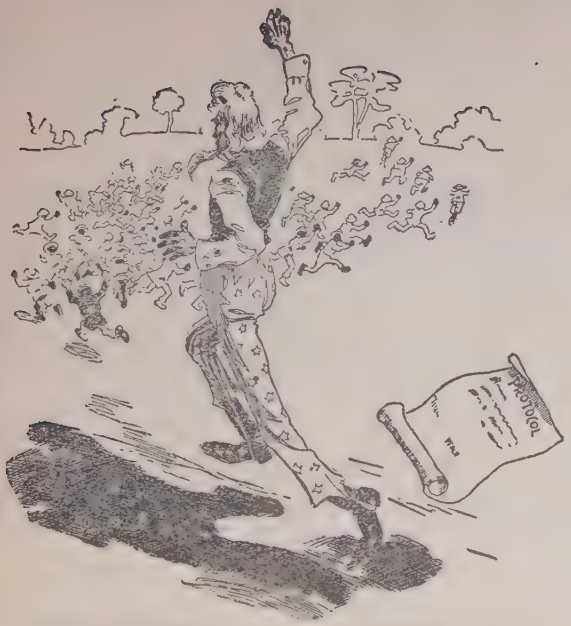
Uncle Sam's next duty.—Minneapolis Tribune.

The long trip of the Oregon around the horn would have been shortened thousands of miles if the proposed Nicaragua canal had been constructed. The cartoon shows that Uncle Sam could easily cut the canal and suggests that it is his duty to do so.

"Adios, Señor; you keep the bag."—St. Louis Globe-Democrat.

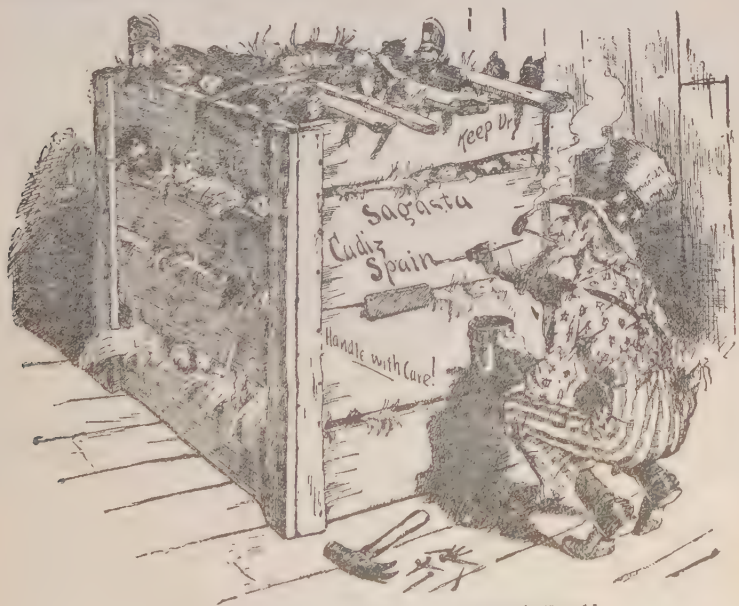
In the peace negotiations Spain made a strong effort to have the United States assume the Cuban debt, but without success. The American government sailed away with the colonies and left Spain to carry the load in the bag—the Cuban debt.

The Goddess of Liberty heralds the day of Freedom for Cuba, Porto Rico and the Philippines.



Hold on there, Dewey! The war is over!—Chicago Journal.

Admiral Dewey in co-operation with the troops of General Merritt compelled the surrender of the city of Manila the day after the peace protocol was signed. Uncle Sam could not notify the fighting admiral in time to prevent him from attacking the Spanish troops.



"Uncle Sam, he pays the freight."—New York Herald.

When the Spanish troops evacuated Cuba and Porto Rico they were shipped back to Spain in transports hired and paid for by the United States. The above cartoon shows Uncle Sam making a consignment of Spanish soldiers to Sagasta.

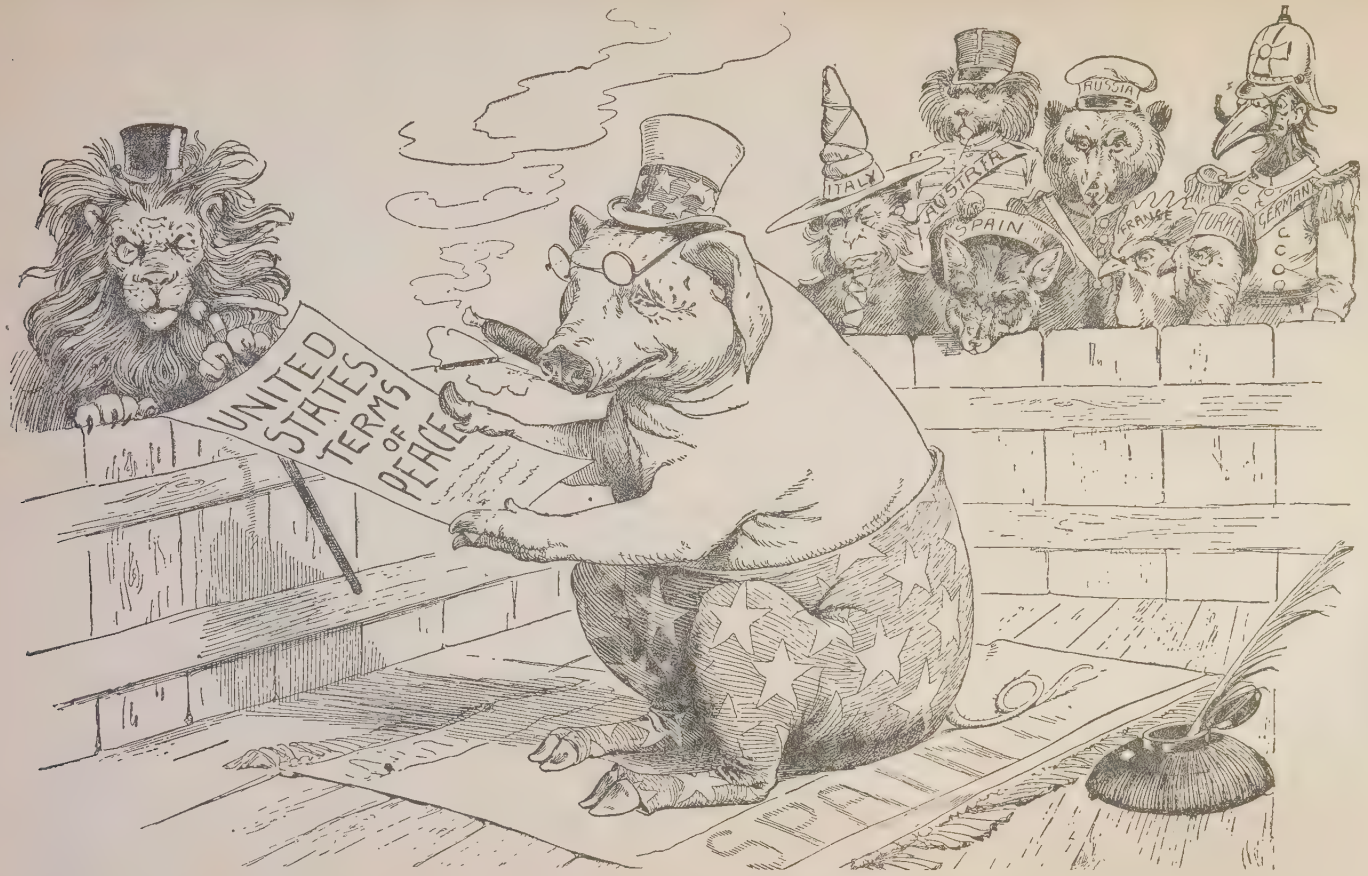
Coming into port.—Philadelphia Press.

President McKinley, at the helm of the Ship of State, brings her safe into the haven of Peace and Honor, while the American Eagle aloft proclaims victory.

CAN'T GET INTO THE UNION FAST ENOUGH.

The wild rush to surrender on the part of those Porto Rican towns portends another Spanish victory.—Chicago News.

During General Miles' campaign in Porto Rico the Spanish press daily recorded Spanish victories in that island. The facts were that the natives, headed by the officials, marched out to meet and welcome the Americans.



THE MUCH DESPISED "YANKEE PIG"—SPANISH VERSION.

Quite a factor in international politics nowadays.—Philadelphia Inquirer.

The Spaniards invariably referred to the Americans as "Yankee pigs." In the above cartoon the nations of Europe are viewing the educated pig who has just finished writing terms of peace—a remarkable feat for a pig. It will be noticed that the British lion stands apart from the other European animals.

DATE DUE

GAYLORD

PRINTED IN U.S.A.

HOLY NAMES COLLEGE LIBRARY
00019150

E -2- 16016
715
N39 Neil, Henry
AUTHOR
Exciting experiences in
TITLE our wars with Spain and the Filipinos.

DATE DUE	BORROWER'S NAME
4-22-74	Bindery

E Neil 16016
715
N39

00019150